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ABSTRACT

This syllabus is intended to serve as the instructor's manual for inservice Spanish teachers' training courses in applied linguistics throughout the state of Texas. Texts are recommended for both participants and instructor. Lesson outlines are provided for six sessions; they include recommended and required readings as well as extensive lecture outlines. Handout samples are also provided. The sessions cover such areas as: general linguistics (various categories); language divisions and subdivisions (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicography, etc.) teaching pronunciation; suprasegmentals; interference from English; pattern drills; transformations; and textbook selection and adaptation. Appendices contain a glossary of linguistic terms and a comparison of English and Spanish mass nouns and count nouns. (AM)

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# A SYLLABUS FOR AN INSERVICE COURSE IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS IN SPANISH

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Ph. D.

TEXAS EDUCATION AGENCY
FOREIGN LANGUAGE SECTION
October 1971

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## PREFACE

During the past decade foreign language instruction has seen a shift of emphasis from a reading-literature approach to that of development of proficiency in the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Although there are teachers who have studied linguistics, either in summer institutes or in regular college courses, there are still many who feel the need of a practical course in applied linguistics. It is for these teachers that the Foreign Language Section of the Texas Education Agency has contracted the services of outstanding linguists in French, German, Latin and Spanish to develop the syllabi in each of the languages. This syllabus will serve as the instructor's manual for each of the courses to be offered to elementary and secondary teachers throughout the State.

Dorothy Davidson, Director, Division of Program Development

Foreign Language Section

George M. Blanco — Program Director

Consultants

| | |
|---|---|
| Clara F. Gregory | Spanish |
| Bobby W. LaBouve | Latin |
| María A. Swanson | French |

## TEXTS

FOR PARTICIPANTS:

Required: Politzer, Robert L. and Charles N. Staubach. Teaching Spanish, A Linguistic Orientation. New York: Blaisdell Publishing Company, 1965.

Dalbor, John B. Spanish Pronunciation: Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1969.

Recommended: Politzer, Robert L. Foreign Language Learning, A Linguistic Introduction. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1970.

Bull, William E. Spanish for Teachers: Applied Linguistics, New York: Ronald Press Company, 1965.

FOR INSTRUCTOR:

Required: Politzer and Staubach; Dalbor; Bull, and

Stockwell, Robert P. and J. Donald Bowen, and John W. Martin. The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1965.

Recommended: Cárdenas, Applied Linguistics Spanish. Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1961.

Same as participants plus supplementary reading from bibliography as necessary.

(Specific references are made to the four required texts and examples taken from them. The instructor will need all four plus the students' books to conduct course.)

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| | Topic | Minutes | Mate |
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| I. | Introduction to linguistics | 30 | |
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| | C. Diachronic and synchronic linguistics | | |
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| | 1. Comparative linguistics | | Cul |
| | 2. Anthropological linguistics | | |
| | 3. Sociolinguistics | | |
| | 4. Psycholinguistics | | |
| II. | The meaning of "Applied Linguistics" | 20 | Politzer-Stau |
| | | | Dalbor, Chapt |
| III. | Divisions of language | 20 | Dalbor, Chapt |
| | A. Phonology | | |
| | 1. Phonetics | | |
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| | B. Morphology | | |
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| IV. | Languages and dialects | 30 | Dalbor, Chapt |
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| V. | General phonetics and phonemics | 40 | Dalbor, Chapt |
| | | | Politzer-Stau |

SESSION I

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
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| inguistics | 30 | | 3 |
| d philology<br>nguistics and<br>nal-generative grammar<br>synchronic linguistics<br>linguistics<br>linguistics<br>ical linguistics<br>istics<br>uistics | | Handouts: Bibliography<br>Glossary of Terms | 4<br>132-6 |
| | | Handout: Language and Culture | 7 |
| Applied Linguistics" | 20 | Politzer-Staubach, pp. 1-10<br>Dalbor, Chapters 1 and 2 | 12 |
| guage | 20 | Dalbor, Chapter 5 | 14 |
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| alects | 30 | Dalbor, Chapter 3 | 16 |
| al areas<br>- general dialect areas | | | |
| s and phonemics | 40 | Dalbor, Chapters 4 and 5<br>Politzer-Staubach, Chapter 5 | 17 |

SESSION I (con'd.)

| Topic | Minutes | Mate |
|---|---|---|
| V. A. Production of sound<br>B. Phonetics<br>1. Consonants - definition, classification and description<br>2. Vowels - definition, classification and description<br>C. Phonemics<br>1. Phoneme<br>2. Allophone<br>3. Minimal pairs (contrasts)<br>4. Complementary distribution (allophones) | | Handouts:<br>Consonant Phor<br>Spanish Conson<br>Charts of Faci<br><br>Transparencie<br>Facial diagra |
| VI. Teaching pronunciation | | |
| A. Spanish consonants<br>1. / p t k /<br>2. /b/, [b, β]<br>3. /d/, [d, ð]<br>4. /g/, [g, ɣ], and /w/ | 80 | Dalbor, Chapt |

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Evaluation

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| | | Consonant Phonemes of English | 22 |
| - definition, classification | | Spanish Consonants | 23 |
| tion | | Charts of Facial Diagrams I-VI | 25-30 |
| finition, classification and | | | |
| | | Transparencies: | |
| | | Facial diagrams | |
| rs (contrasts) | | | |
| ry distribution | | | |
| ) | | | |
| ation | | | 24 |
| ants | 80 | Dalbor, Chapters 8-11 | |
| , and /w/ | | | |
| | | | 31 |

INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

## NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should take notes as topics are presented by the instructor. Definitions should be given of the topics listed and examples and discussion engaged in where applicable. It is suggested that just a brief definition of Transformational and Generative Grammar (and its place in the history of linguistics) be given at this point, since it is dealt with in somewhat more detail in a later session.

Time needed: 30 minutes

Notes to Participants (for reference)

See Glossary of Terms (pp. 132-136).

Recommended reading: Saussure, Ferdinand de, Course in General Linguistics. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1966, Chapters I-VI, pp. 1-22. (Paperback edition)

Salas, Peter H., Linguistics. (The Bobbs-Merrill Series in Speech Communication) New York: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1969, Introduction and Chapters 6 and 7 (pp. 52-60).

The enclosed article, Language and Culture, by Stanley Newman of the University of New Mexico could be employed as either a handout for the participants, or as background reading for the instructor, whichever seems more feasible.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

The following is merely a partial list of the voluminous material available. The instructor is urged to add to the bibliography if he so desires. It is recommended that the bibliography be given to the participants in the form of a handout at the end of each session. Also note that there are bibliographies at the end of the two texts used in this course, i.e. Dalbor, and Politzer-Staubach.


Austin, J. L. How to Do Things With Words. Ed., J. O. Urmson. New York: Oxford University Press, 1965.

Carroll, John B. Language and Thought. Englewood Cliffs N. J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1964.

Chomsky, Noam. Language and Mind. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1963.

Fodor, Jerry A., and Jerrold J. Katz, eds. The Structure of Language, Readings in the Philosophy of Language. Englewood Cliffs N. J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1964.

Gleason, H. A. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., Revised Ed., 1967.

Greenberg, Joseph H., ed. Universals of Language. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1963.

Katz, Jerrold J. The Philosophy of Language. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1966.

Lehmann, Winfred P. Historical Linguistics: An Introduction. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1962.

Lieberson, Stanley, ed. "Explorations in Sociolinguistics." International Journal of American Linguistics. Vol. 33, No. 4, Part II, 1967.

Osgood, Charles E., and Thomas A. Sebeok, eds. Psycholinguistics. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1965.

Samarin, William J. Field Linguistics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1967.

Saporta, Sol, ed. Psycholinguistics: A Book of Readings. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1961.

Smith, Frank, and George A. Miller, eds. The Genesis of Language. Cambridge: Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1966.

Outline of Presentation

The common confusion of a linguist with a polyglot is sufficient reason for beginning the course with a statement like, "Linguistics is the study of language." The linguist is interested in language for its own sake and may or may not know (i.e., speak) the languages he studies and analyzes. It is also necessary to point out the difference between philology and linguistics.

Philology approaches the study of language as a tool to enable the researcher to gain access to the literature, sociology, anthropology, and/or history of a given language. Often the philologist is interested in literatures and cultures where the language is no longer spoken; in this case he studies the written, etched, printed, etc., word, but not the spoken language.

As stated previously, the linguist is interested in language for its own sake or in language as a phenomenon of human behavior. He studies the essence of language which is speech and the psychological realities underlying it. Writing is secondary and evolved as an effort to try to represent the transitory nature of sound in a more permanent way. Now of course, there are video tapes, tape recorders, film etc., which can record sound in a more permanent way.

In this century, especially in the last decade or so, especially in the U. S., linguistics has taken two paths: descriptive linguistics and transformational-generative grammar. Both of these approaches can interest themselves in either synchronic or diachronic studies. Their basic approach to linguistics is, however, quite different. Simply put, the descriptivists see language as "a series of concatenations - of sounds into forms and of forms into larger syntactic entities; the transformational-generative grammarians see the sentence - the unit utterance - as basic." (Salas, p. xii.)

Traditional, or formal grammar, is basically both prescriptive and proscriptive in that it uses a "grammar rule" as a starting point for language learning. These "grammar rules" have never really been satisfactorily defined by either the classical grammarian or by the classroom teacher who frequently breaks these very rules in his own language usage. (Bull, p. 13) Certain rules, however, do have a function. But they, in effect, are more conventions than rules in the strict sense; i.e., any given language will admit only certain things (inflections, etc.) in determined cases, and every speaker of the language complies with those conventions.

The other type of "rule" or convention covers what is called "free variants," which include many different possibilities.

Neither the descriptive linguists nor the tranformationalists set down proscriptions. They, from the point of view they embrace, describe what happens in a given language, classify the conventions and attempt a classification of the free variants.

Synchronic studies concern themselves with a definite point in time in the development of a language with no consideration of historical or developmental factors. Diachronic studies, on the other hand, trace the development of a certain factor or factors in a given language over a period of time. (See chart in Dalbor, p. 11.)

Comparative linguistics compare two or more languages either synchronically or diachronically. These languages may be within the same family group or cut across different groups.

Anthropological linguistics is a branch of cultural anthropology. The linguist generally does field work -- the transcription and analysis of a natural language using a native informant in his own habitat. Another concern of the anthropological linguist lies in the area of language and culture. (See: Salas, p. 56.)

Sociolinguistics deals with the sociological applications of linguistic data and the linguistic uses of sociological data. (See: Salas, p. 57.)

Psycholinguistics deals with several areas: the psychological drive that sets the grammatical process into motion; "psychological processes" involved in sentence production and sentence recognition; learning patterns, perception, and cognition, etc. (See: Salas, pp. 57-78.)

Another area of linguistics includes semantics, which is the study of meaning.

## LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

There has been a growing trend to include orientation material in the teaching of English as a second language, and this concept of orientation implicity recognizes the interrelation of language and culture. It recognizes that if the foreign student is to learn English, he must learn more than the mechanical skills for handling English linguistic forms. He must learn something about the cultural context in which English is used.

I have found it useful to think of the language-and-culture interrelationship in two main ways. It seems to be a universal phenomenon, in the first place, that all human groups have their own culturally determined notions about language. Every culture has a complex of ideas, attitudes, and values about language - what it is made of, what its proper usages are, what is good about it or bad about it. In anthropological field work one can always find native informants who will readily talk about the good points of their language in contrast to the ineffective or peculiar or funny characteristics among the languages of their neighbors. These notions, of course, will differ from group to group, for they develop from the distinctive history of a culture. The second type of language-and-culture relationship arises from the very nature of language symbols, which refer to a culturally defined reality and not, however much we would like to think so, to a perfectly obvious, objective reality. Here, too, cultures differ in their ways of categorizing experience. Each culture provides its members with a means of mapping experience, and its language is a labeling system by which the speakers can find their way around on this map.

As native speakers of English we have not only learned to talk English; we have also learned a vast complex of notions about language in general and English in particular. The component beliefs of this complex were imbedded in our culture long before the beginnings of linguistic science. Many of these beliefs are contrary to our scientific knowledge about language. But they have a powerful hold upon us, whether we are students of language or not, for they are among the beliefs which loyal members of our culture are prone to take for granted.

Among the notions which have particular relevance to second language teaching is the evaluation placed upon the writing system. In the history of our class-structured society, writing became associated with the learned professions and, later, with the aristocracy. Like other habits associated with the upper classes - habits of eating and housing, of dress, of etiquette - writing acquired an aura of prestige. In contrast, speech became class-marked as a lowly form of language, for the lower classes remained illiterate throughout most of the history of Western Culture. In spite of changes in our class structure and the spread of literacy in the past few centuries, these values have persisted: writing

is regarded as the real language, superior to speaking, and the term "colloquial" as applied to speech carries implications of low esteem. In this context of cultural values, second language courses traditionally place their emphasis upon reading, writing, even correct spelling, and tend to waste as little time as possible on the "low-class" activities of talking and understanding speech. The newer approaches to second language teaching have given increasing attention to speech, recognizing that speech is language and that writing is merely a visual representation of it. But those who are publishing courses reflecting this trend cannot afford to ignore the value attitudes toward speech and writing, however irrational, which are current in our culture. Or, if they are naive enough to igrore such attitudes, they will pay the penalties of deviating from cultural norms.

Another component in our cultural lore is the notion that a language is essentially a means for labeling all the things in the universe. Since words are the linguistic labels, learning a second language, from this point of view, simply involves learning to substitute foreign-language words for the more familiar words of one's native language. Through this substitution process it is believed that one learns the meaning of each foreign word. The more advanced second language courses use various methods to discourage the student from relying upon this word substitution process, but they cannot go too far. The prevalence of vocabulary lists, which are simply foreign-to-native-word substitution lists, is an indication of the power and persistence of this naive conception of language. The word in any language, of course, does not function like a label; it is not a single meaning unit. A word carries multiple meanings. The Oxford English Dictionary lists some 14,000 meanings for the 500 most frequent words of English - an average of over 28 meanings per word. Futhermore, words and other linguistic forms refer, not to objectively isolated things out there in reality, but to culturally defined parts of the group's experience with reality. And this brings me to the second type of language-and-culture relationship.

Let me illustrate what I mean by taking a concrete example. In field work with an Indian language, one may get a vocabulary of body parts, for instance, by asking the informant to give his word for "finger, hand, arm," etc. This method will provide rough translation equivalents, based upon English. Or, one can use a method which allows the language to speak for itself: in working with the Zuñi language recently, I showed the native speaker some line drawings of the human body, front and back; I asked him to point to a part of the body, give its name in Zuñi, and draw a pencil line around the part included in the name. As might be expected, the Zuñi map of the human body is different from the English map. The Zuñi word /asinne (the symbol / indicates the glottal stop sound) refers to the part extending from the fingertips to the shoulder; outside of body-part references, the same word also refers to the wing-tip feathers of a bird and to the handle of a cooking-pot or a plough. Another Zuñi word, chutinne,

is somewhat equivalent to English "shoulder" but includes part of the upper back that we would not regard as belonging to the shoulder. Lest Zuni be thought to have only more inclusive terms than English for body parts, it has a word for the region in back of the leg just behind the knee. For this region English has no distinctive word, just as Zuñi has no distinctive word for "finger." But this would be a crude way of expressing the difference. More significantly, the two languages differ in the way they categorize the parts of the human body. For certain portions of the body language A will use more inclusive terms than language B; for other portions conceived and essential parts language A will have the more discriminating terms.

The same holds true of color references in different languages, an area of human experience which has interested anthropologists and psychologists. To quote from an article by Verne Ray, written in 1952:

> There is no such thing as a "natural" division of the spectrum. Each culture has taken the spectral continuum and has divided it into units on a quite arbitrary basis ... No color system derives from physiological limitations; no color system exploits fully the physiological sensitivity of the human being.

To say that such-and-such a language has no word for "blue" is merely to say that in this part of the color spectrum our own language, English, makes a terminological discrimination which another language does not happen to make. There is nothing natural about discriminating blue out of the color continuum, any more than it is natural to have a term for "finger" or for the body part on the leg just back of the knee. The individual can easily convince himself, however, that his habits of identifying colors or body parts are the natural ones. He is not aware that he acquired these habits from his culture, which presented him with arbitrary maps for colors, for body parts, and for all the other areas of experience which he was likely to encounter. He heard other people in his community repeatedly use the terms associated with these maps, and he learned to orient himself by using the same terms again and again, until eventually his habits became deeply grooved. If he has an intuitive feeling that his habits, powerfully automatic in his own behavior, must be natural for all human beings, this is a common cultural illusion. It can be dispelled by experience with other languages and cultures.

Perhaps at this point we can begin to build up a model of the relationship between language and culture, correcting some of the misconceptions of our own linguistic folklore. The model of the folkloristic view may be pictured as follows: each word in a language is connected by a single strand of meaning to some natural item of reality which exists in all human experience. If this were a useful model, second language learning would be

merely the job of re-plugging the strands into foreign-language word symbols. One correction to this model, however, would necessitate attaching a number of strands to each language symbol, to take care of its multiple denotations. As another correction, there are no natural, universal units in human experience to which these strands can be connected. Rather, each strand has reference to some arbitrary chunk of experience, the size of each chunk and its limits being defined by the culture.

This model may suggest why one cannot expect words in any two languages to be identical but only roughly equivalent. In the first place, each of the equivalent word symbols will have numerous strands of meaning, and the strands of the two symbols will differ in number and in direction. The equivalence arises from the fact that one of strands attached to the symbol of language A leads to the same general area of experience as one of the strands of a language B symbol. But, in the second place, the segment of experience carved out by the strand of language A symbol will differ in size and shape from that of language B. In short, equivalent words in two languages are merely words which have some degree of overlap in one of their denotative meanings.

Up to this point I have been talking about meaning solely on the denotative level. In addition, the presence of connotations in language symbols, so far as we know, is a universal phenomenon. In all languages, apparently, symbols have overtones of meaning and implications shared by the members of a linguistic and cultural community. These connotative meanings add a kind of third dimension to the cultural maps of experience. They give the native speaker the feeling that his language has an emotional richness of expression, a power and vitality that no other language can have.

One characteristic of connotations is their great sensitivity to cultural changes. Denotative meanings, of course, also change over time and vary over space. A historical dictionary, such as the Oxford English, lists the temporal changes in the denotative meanings of words. Dialect studies frequently investigate how word denotations vary in space. But the variability of denotations, as compared with connotations, is relatively slight.

The highly variable and subtle connotative overtones of words are perhaps the most difficult elements of a language for the foreign learner. Even native speakers of English, who are on intimate terms with their language and culture, will not be aware of the denotative implications that familiar words may carry in regional and social dialects other than their own. For example, words like "cow, bull, stallion, mare" would

never be used, in certain American rural communities, by a self-respecting farmer in the presence of ladies. Such words have an offensive sexual connotation in these communities, where a city dweller who might use the words in mixed company would be innocently committing a serious social blunder.

A recently devised method for the study of connotative meanings has shown the rapidity with which they can change in time. This method, known as the Semantic Differential and developed by Charles E. Osgood of the University of Illinois, employs a statistical technique for measuring the connotative overtones of words. Subjects are given a series of concepts, such as "pacifist" or "hero", and asked to rate the concepts on a large number of qualitative scales, such as "good-bad," "strong-weak," "active-passive." The results provide a connotative profile which native speakers assign to a concept at a specific time and place. A particular point of interest lies in the fact that this study was begun just before World War II, and many of the concepts selected for experimentation were words with political overtones. As the series of experiments were conducted before and after Pearl Harbor, starting early in 1940 continuing to 1942, a consistent change was evident: native speakers were shifting the connotative content of the English concepts in a militaristic direction, a result which reflected the changing politcal climate of our society in that two- or three-year period.

A recognition of the complexity and subtlety of the interrelation between language and culture should bring a measure of humble realism to the difficult task of second language teaching. It is fairly easy to teach the foreign student to memorize vocabulary lists and some grammatical rules so that he can puzzle out the translation equivalents between English and his language, usually with the help of a dictionary, pencil, and paper; this procedure gives the student little more than the uncomfortable feeling that the second language expresses by barbaric circumlocutions the same things that he can say much more conveniently in his own language. It is a more difficult task to teach the foreign student how to operate the linguistic machinery of English with automatic ease, so that he can talk and understand without going through the translation process. And it is even more difficult to use the teaching of English as a means of providing the foreign student with symbols that are guides to our cultural maps. In the framework of this purpose, orientation procedures should give the student a growing awareness of the cultural context in which the linguistic symbols of English are used.

Stanley Newman
University of New Mexico

## THE MEANING OF "APPLIED LINGUISTICS"

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should take notes as topic is presented by instructor.

Time needed: 20 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required Reading: Politzer-Staubach, pp. 1-10
Dalbor, Chapters 1 and 2

Recommended Reading: Lado, Robert. Language Teaching, a Scientific Approach. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964, pp. 1-60.

Bull, William E. Spanish for Teachers: Applied Linguistics, New York: Ronald Press Company, 1965, pp. 13-14.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY


Brooks, Nelson. Language and Language Learning, Theory and Practice. 2nd ed., New York: Harcourt, Brace and World Inc., 1964.

Lado, Robert. Language Testing. The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.

Politzer, Robert L. Foreign Language Learning, A Linguistic Introduction. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965.

Rivers, W. M. The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964.

THE MEANING OF "APPLIED LINGUISTICS"

Outline of Presentation

Applied linguistics concerns itself with effectively using the findings of linguists in the various areas in the teaching-learning situation. In terms of methodology, in order to prepare effective materials, we must analyze, or have a knowledge of the analysis of both languages, and then concentrate on the contrasts between them. The principle upon which applied linguistics is founded has been summarized as follows: "The most efficient [pedagogical] materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner." (Fries, Charles C. Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor, Michigan University of Michigan Press, 1953, p. 9.)

The good audio-lingual teacher need not be a professional structural linguist, but he must have an adequate background in the following: a) general linguistics, b) articulatory phonetics, c) phonemics, d) morphemics, e) syntax f) methodology. If he has this preparatory background, the linguistically trained teacher should have these specific skills:

- a structural understanding of English and the target language
- ability to cope with problems at all levels of each phase of language study: phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, etc.,
- ability to apply to classroom use new findings in linguistics
- ability to prepare drill material at all levels -- not puzzles or an intellectual challenge, but meaningful materials which can be manipulated by the student to help him acquire automatic habits
- ability to distinguish valid linguistic statements from non-scientific statements or anecdotal observations
- ability to recognize and deal with language problems.

## DIVISIONS OF LANGUAGE

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should take notes on the topics presented. Instructor should present definitions and some examples at this point. The individual topics will be taken up in greater detail (applicable to Spanish) later.

Time needed: 20 minutes

### Notes to Participants

Required Reading: Dalbor, Chapter 5

## DIVISIONS OF LANGUAGE

### Outline of Presentation

In a broad sense, phonology refers to the sound system of a language in its totality. Some linguists have used the term to indicate the historical study of sounds, many to indicate the study of the functioning of sounds in a particular language.

Phonetics is the study and description of speech sounds, i.e. the study of the modalities of sounds used in speaking. The branch of phonetics which studies the sounds themselves (i.e., a scientific approach including sound waves, etc.) is called acoustic phonetics, and the study of the sound production is called articulatory phonetics.

Phonemics deals with the study of the distinctive sounds of language, and concerns itself with differences in pronunciation which speakers use in distinguishing different utterances in a language (CONTRASTS), the limitations on occurrences of sounds, and the specification of the varieties of sound found in particular circumstances.

Morphology is the study of meaningful units (word forms) in a given language. It deals with different classes of words (verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc.)

Syntax concerns itself with how words can be used and combined to make up larger units of speech such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. It is important to point out that syntax is not merely "word order." It is the relationship of the parts to each other and to the whole, and in fact, cannot easily be separated from morphology.

## LANGUAGES AND DIALECTS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should take notes as topic is presented. Refer to Charts in Dalbor, pp. 19 and 22*, and discuss.

Time needed: 30 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapter 3, pp. 15-24.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

See listing at end of Dalbor, Chapter 3

See also: Belasco, Simon, ed. Manual and Anthology of Applied Linguistics. Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath and Company, 1961.

* It is recommended that the instructor consult a few of the texts cited in Dalbor's bibliography to abstract a few examples of dialectal differences. Also be sure to point out that although it is advantageous for the student to have exposure to many accents and dialects, he should be consistent in his imitation of one type.

## GENERAL PHONETICS AND PHONEMICS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should take notes on topics as presented.

Handouts include: 1. Chart of English sounds (Consonants); 2. Chart of Facial Diagrams - blank - to be filled in by participant for different points of articulation; 3. Chart - blank - to be filled in by participant for Spanish consonants (as they are presented).

Transparencies for topics Articulatory Phonetics

Time needed: 60 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 4 and 5
Politzer-Staubach, Chapter 5

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

See listing at end of Dalbor, Chapters 4 and 5.

GENERAL PHONETICS AND PHONEMICS

## Articulatory Phonetics

### Outline of Presentation

Spoken language first. This is true both in the history of man and in the experience of individual speakers. Man has been speaking for about a hundred thousand years, but he only began to write less than 6,000 years ago. The child is an accomplished speaker at least three to four years before he makes his first crude attempt at writing.

The importance of pronunciation. If we are to give the spoken language the vital role it must have, then we must give primary attention to pronunciation. And if the learner is to hear and imitate accurately, then he has to know exactly what his speech organs are doing.

The speech process and the organs of speech. The basic factor in speech is a column of air. This column of air comes from the lungs and is forced up and out of the lungs by the action of the diaphragm, which we push up against the lungs with varying degrees of force as we speak. It moves up through the pharynx (throat) where it must pass through the larynx in order to make its way up and out. In the larynx are the vocal chords, through which all air -- whether inhaled, exhaled, spoken or whispered -- must pass. If the chords come together and vibrate as the column of air passes through, that air will be a voiced column of air after it leaves the larynx. If the chords do not come together, they will not vibrate, but will simply let the air through. That column of air will be unvoiced. From the larynx, the column leaves the body through one or both of its two possible exits, the oral cavity or the nasal cavity. If the velum is brought forward and down, some or all of the air will go into the nasal cavity and out through the nose, producing a nasal sound. If the velum is drawn up and back, it will block off the entrance to the nasal cavity and all of the air will go out through the mouth, producing an oral sound. However, before leaving one or both of these cavities, the column of air is either shaped or blocked in various ways so that it emerges as recognizable speech sounds which we know as vowel sounds or consonant sounds. In the case of vowels, the organs involved are relatively far apart; for consonant sounds they are either touching or almost touching. To produce vowel sounds we change the shape of the mouth, nose and throat cavities (which we call resonators) so that each different shape causes the column of air to emerge as characteristically familiar vowel sounds (that is, familiar to any one language group). The organs which do the shaping are mainly the tongue and lips.

To produce consonants we block or partially block the column of air in such a way that it emerges in the form of characteristically

familiar consonant sounds. We call this process articulation, and the principal organs involved are the tongue, teeth, lips and palate. (Refer to Dalbor, p. 26 and discuss the organs of speech. At this point, ask for questions.)

Consonants - classification and description. There are three standardized basic criteria for the description of consonants, as follows:

- Condition of the glottis (vocal chords) - whether they are vibrating or not, whether the column is, therefore, voiced or unvoiced.

- Point of articulation - the place where the column of air is blocked or partially blocked by the constriction of the speech organs. This is the WHERE of consonant articulation. For example, the sound will be a bilabial sound if the place where this occurs is at the two lips. (Use visual to sketch out the major points of articulation in Spanish and have participants fill in their chart.) The major points or articulation in Spanish are: bilabial, labiodental, interdental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar, uvular and glottal.

- Manner of articulation - the way in which the blockage or constriction is accomplished. This is the HOW of consonant articulation. Here the principal ones are:

  Stops (oclusives) If the column of air is completely blocked, then released suddenly, the sound is called a stop.

  Continuants If there is no blocking of the air stream, such sounds as continuants are produced. There are two main types: fricative and resonants.

  Fricatives are continuant sounds in which the organs are brought close enough together so that the air stream makes a friction-like sound.

  Resonants are continuant sounds in which the organs are brought close together, but not quite close enough to make a fricative sound. Among these are:

  Lateral - resonant sounds in which the column of air leaves the mouth along the sides of the tongue instead of over the top.

Nasal - resonant sounds in which the oral cavity is closed off at some point and the nasal passage opened so that the air goes out through the nose.

Semi-vowels (or semi-consonants) - resonant sounds which are considered as being on the borderline between vowels and consonants.

Affricates can almost be thought of as a combination of a stop and a fricative. The stoppage is made, but instead of being released suddenly, it is released gradually like a fricative.

Tap (or flap) - a quick tap of the tip of the tongue against the gum ridge.

Trill - the tip of the tongue brought to the gum ridge where it is set into vibration.

Vowels - classification and description. There are also three basic criteria for the description of vowel sounds as follows:

The first two refer to the position of the arch of the tongue; that is, the point in the mouth where the highest point of its arch is situated.

. ↕ Vertical plane. Position of the arch with respect to the palate; whether it is high (relatively close to the palate), mid (farther away), or low.

. ↔ Horizontal plane. Position of the arch with respect to the front or back of the mouth: front, central back.

The third refers to the shape of the lips; whether spread: (as in Spanish [i, e]), or rounded: (as in Spanish [o, u]).

## INTRODUCTION TO PHONEMICS

Phoneme and allophone. Speakers of any one language use literally hundreds of sounds, some of which differ only ever so slightly from one or more other sounds. Yet those same speakers differentiate only a very limited number of sound units or classes of sounds. These are called phonemes. A phoneme, then, is the smallest unit of sound which is distinctively differentiated by the speakers of a given lan-

guage. Allophones are phones (speech sounds) classified together as members of the same phoneme. (See examples in Dalbor and Politzer), e.g. different allophones of /k/ in English, both in the same position (keen, kit, cad, con, cup, cough) and in different articulations according to position: (kin, skin, thick). Also point out that what is phonemic in English may be allophonic in Spanish and vice versa.*

Minimal pairs - two stretches of speech differing in only one feature of sound (by only one phoneme). Give examples.

Complementary distribution - (allophones) this refers to the range of occurence of a sound in terms of the environment relative to other sounds in which the given sound can occur. (see kin, skin, thick - above; also mention allophones of /n/ in Spanish briefly).

* 

| English phonemic | Spanish allophonic |
|---|---|
| den /d/ | de [d] |
| then /ð/ | pide [đ] |

| Spanish phonemic | English allophonic |
|---|---|
| cara /r/ | intervocalic |
| cada /đ/ | tt & dd |
| bata /t/ | flap & can be confused with /r/ in Spanish |

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF ENGLISH

POINTS OF ARTICULATION

| MANNERS OF ARTICULATION | Bilabial | Labio-dental | Inter-dental | Alveolar | Palatal | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| STOPS | p b | | | t d | | k |
| SLIT FRICATIVES | | f v | θ ð | | | |
| GROOVE FRICATIVES | | | | s z | š ž | |
| AFFRICATES | | | | | č j | |
| RESONANTS NASALS | m | | | n | | |
| RESONANTS LATERAL | | | | l | | |
| RESONANTS MEDIAN | | | | r | | |
| SEMI-VOWELS (GLIDES) | w | | | | y | |

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF ENGLISH

POINTS OF ARTICULATION

| Bilabial | Labio-dental | Inter-dental | Alveolar | Palatal | Velar | Glottal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| p b | | | t d | | k g | |
| | f v | θ ð | | | | h |
| | | | s z | š ž | | |
| | | | | č ǰ | | |
| m | | | n | | ŋ | |
| | | | l | | | |
| | | | r | | | |
| w | | | | y | | (h) |

SPANISH - CONSONANT CHART

| | Labiales | | Labio-dentales | | Inter-dentales | | Dentales | | Alveolares | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | So |
| OCLUSIVAS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| FRICATIVAS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| AFRICADAS | | | | | | | | | | | |
| NASALES | | | | | | | | | | | |
| LATERALES | | | | | | | | | | | |
| VIBRANTES | | | | | | | | | | | |

SPANISH - CONSONANT CHART

| | Labio-dentales | | Inter-dentales | | Dentales | | Alveolares | | Palatales | | Velares | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. | Sor. | Son. |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
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3

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should follow along in Dalbor, Chapters 8-11. After presentation of phonemes, their articulation, allophonic distribution, dialectal variations, and contrasts with English, some of the drills in each chapter could be done.

Have the participants do the exercises located at the end of each chapter, as time permits.

Allow 15 minutes (roughly) for each of the topics in this section and gauge your time accordingly in terms of the number of drills and exercises that can be accomplished.

As the phonemes and allophones are presented, have applicants fill in the consonant chart they were given previously.

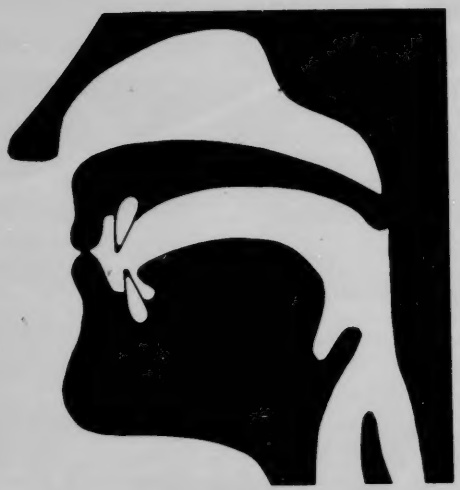
This procedure should be followed in subsequent sessions in the presentation of the phonology.

Materials needed: Transparencies for /p t k b d g w/

Time needed: 60 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 8-11



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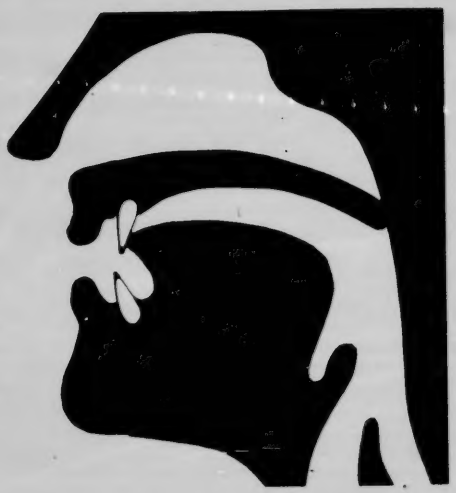

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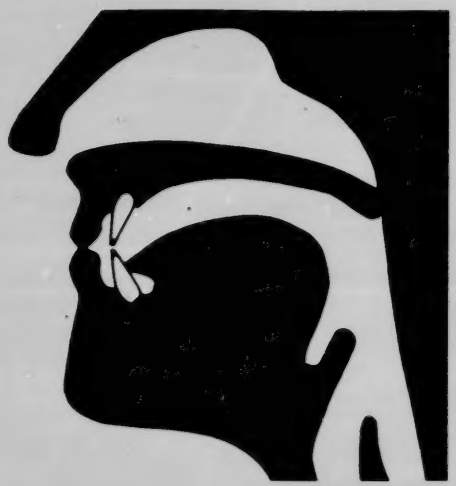
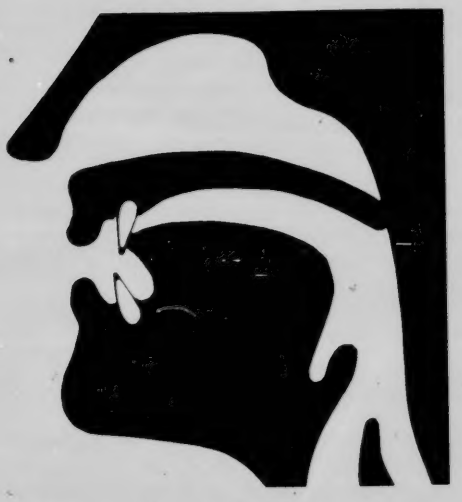


[b]

[ɓ]

FACIAL DIAGRAMS - I



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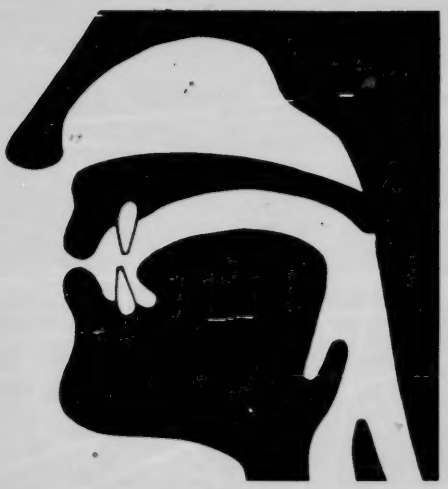


[b]

[v] [f]

34

35

[d]

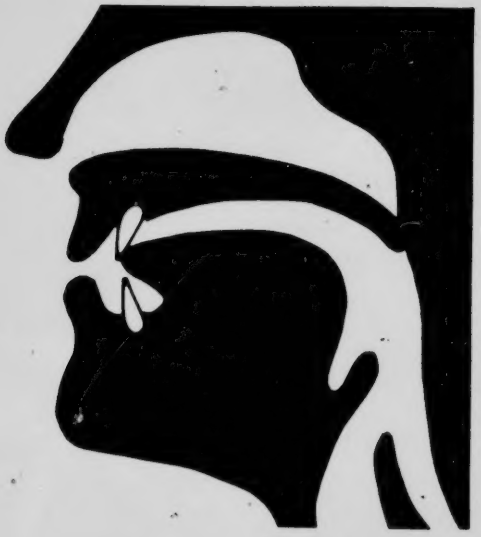
[d]

[g]

[g]

FACIAL DIAGRAMS - II

[d]



[ɖ]

[g] 36

[g] 37

[s] [z]

38

[ĉ]

39

FACIAL DIAGRAMS - III

[s][z]

38

[ĉ]

39

FACIAL DIAGRAMS - IV













28

FACIAL DIAGRAMS - IV

[y]

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[x]

40

[ɢ]

41

[m]

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[l]

FACIAL DIAGRAMS V

[n]

[ñ]

[l]

English [x]

4.2

4.3

[r]

[r]

FACIAL DIAGRAMS VI

[r̄]

English [r]

44

45

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

(Instructor should also read the material assigned and prepare the questions indicated.)

Read: Politzer and Staubach. Teaching Spanish, A Linguistic Orientation, Chapters I-IV.

Select three or four participants to devise a one- to two-minute exercise based on present lesson (one specific point for each person) and have participants present the exercise at next session, much in the same way as they would to their own students.

SESSION II

| Topic | Minutes | Mat |
|---|---|---|
| Questions and discussion of Politzer and Staubach, pp. 177-79 | 20 | Politzer-Sta |
| VI. Teaching pronunciation | | |
| A. Spanish consonants<br>5. Review (Chapter 12)<br>6. /f/, /c̆/<br>7. /θ/, /s/<br>8. /y/, [y, ŷ, ž] | 60 | Dalbor, Chapt<br>Handouts: ma<br>(España and<br>Tomás Navarr |
| DICTATION | 20 | |
| BREAK | 20 | |
| VI. Teaching pronunciation | | |
| A. Spanish consonants<br>9. /x (h)/<br>10. Review (Chapter 17)<br>11. /m, n, ɲ/, and allophones<br>12. / l, ʎ/, and allophones | 60 | Dalbor, Chapt |
| - - - - - - - - - - - - | | |
| 13. /r, r̄/, and allophones<br>14. Sounds represented by the letter "x"<br>15. Review (Chapter 22)<br>16. Consonant combinations (clusters) | 60 | Dalbor, Chapt |
| ASSIGNMENT SHEET | | |
| Evaluation | | |

SESSION II

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| on of Politzer and | 20 | Politzer-Staubach | 33 |
| iation | | | 34 |
| nants<br>apter 12) | 60 | Dalbor, Chapters 13-15 | |
| , ž] | | Handouts: maps of yeísmo (España and Hispanoamérica)<br>Tomás Navarro | 35-36<br>37 |
| | 20 | | 41 |
| | 20 | | |
| iation | | | 42 |
| nants | 60 | Dalbor, Chapters 16-19 | |
| apter 17)<br>and allophones<br>nd allophones | | | |
| - - - - - | | | |
| d allophones<br>resented by the letter "x"<br>apter 22)<br>combinations (clusters) | 60 | Dalbor, Chapters 20-23 | |
| | | | 44 |

## QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

First ask for questions; afterwards, call on participants to answer some of the questions in Politzer-Staubach, pp. 177-79.

Have participants do demonstration teaching (as assigned in previous session).

Time needed: 20 minutes

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION (CONT'D.)
VI. 5-8

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

First have participants follow charts on page 80 in Dalbor and review the material heretofore presented. Secondly, have participants do Exercise D, Phonetic Transcription (p. 84) and check it in Appendix E.

Subsequent to review, present segments 6-8 having participants fill in their consonant chart as you go along. (See summary of Session II, VI A.) Do drills, as time permits.

Time needed: 60 minutes, about 15 minutes for each segment (5-8)

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 13, 14, 15.

Handouts: (for segments 7 and 8) - Maps of yeísmo (total 2)

NOTE: Optional handout: three-page résumé of Tomás Navarro's discussion of yeísmo in Spain.

distinción de la ll y y

yeísmo pleno

ll y y equilibradas

más ll que y

más y que ll

(mapas del ALPI caballo
castillo
cuchillo)

# España–
## La ll y el yeísmo

# El yeísmo en Hispanoamérica

zonas donde se conserva ʎ.

zonas donde se distingue entre ž(ʒ) y Y

zonas yeístas sin distinción

52

Tomás Navarro, Nuevos datos sobre el yeísmo en España

Tres palabras usadas en la investigación: caballo; castillo; cuchillo.

ZONA DE LA ll NORMAL

Sin contar con las regiones bilingües de Cataluña y Valencia, conservadoras de la ll normal, la zona de plena diferenciación comprende Aragón, Navarra, la parte castellanizada de Vasconia y las provincias de Burgos, Palencia, Valladolid, Zamora, Salamanca, Logroño, Soria, Segovia, Guadalajara y Cuenca. De los cuatro lugares de Valladolid, correspondientes al norte, sur, este y oeste, en ninguno fue registrado el yeísmo que suele atribuirse a los pueblos de esta provincia, con la capital como centro. Tampoco aparece el yeísmo en ninguno de los once puntos estudiados en Salamanca, aunque varios de ellos se hallan al sur, del que se dice que posee esta pronunciación como rasgo dialectal.

Por supuesto, la articulación de la ll normal, dorsopalatal lateral sonora, no es siempre igualmente clara y definida. En ocasiones se oye con tensión débil y con reducido contacto entre la lengua y el paladar. Otras veces, justamente en la zona leonesa más que en otras comarcas, su articulación produce un sonido mixto o intermedio entre /l̠/ y /y/. No es improbable que la aparente contradicción informativa resulte a veces de diferencias de método o precisión en el análisis fonético. Otras veces podrá obedecer al hecho de que la información divulgada respecto al yeísmo de ciertos lugares no se refiere concretamente, como en el ALPI, al fondo del habla popular sino a ejemplos de otro nivel, referidos con valor vagamente generalizado.

ZONA DE PLENO YEISMO

La zona de yeísmo con completa desaparición del sonido palatal lateral de la ll se reduce en los mapas de las referidas palabras a las provincias de Cádiz, Málaga, Granada, Jaén y Almería, es decir, principalmente a la parte oriental de Andalucía. Las demás provincias andaluzas, Córdoba, Sevilla, y Huelva, no se manifiestan enteramente desligadas de la tradición de la /l̠/ normal. Se practica el yeísmo en la indicada zona oriental bajo varias formas que, dentro de su imprecisa y movible condición pueden reducirse a los siguientes tipos: 1) /y/; 2) /ŷ/; 3) /y̌/; 4) /ẑ/. Ocurre en algunas ocasiones el ensordecimiento de la /y/, o sea /y̥/, sobre todo cuando pertenece a la sílaba final débil y grave de una proposición cuya última vocal resulta asimismo ensordecida.

Las variantes articulatorias de la /y/, fricativas y africadas, suaves y rehilantes, a juzgar por las modificaciones históricas

y dialectales relacionadas con tal consonante, tienen en la lengua antigüedad muy anterior a la fecha en que, por ablandamiento del contacto dorsopalatal de la ll, se produjo el yeísmo, fecha situada en las últimas décadas del siglo XVII para el hispanoamericano y a la distancia de un siglo después para el andaluz, según Amado Alonso en su trabajo, "La ll y sus alteraciones en España y América", en Estudios dedicados a Menéndez Pidal, II, 1-49.

ZONA DE YEISMO PARCIAL

Las provincias de Madrid, Toledo, Ciudad Real, Cáceres, Badajoz y Huelva. Los pueblos estudiados en cada una de ellas se reparten entre diferenciación y yeísmo en proporciones relativamente semejantes, aunque se inclinen más o menos en uno u otro sentido.

En torno a esta extensa y variada área de transición, otras provincias revelan situación más decidida respecto a la diferenciación o el yeísmo. Unas parecen hallarse en los primeros pasos de su adhesión a la corriente yeísta y otras en los últimos de su fidelidad a la ll normal. En el primer caso se cuentan Avila, Albacete y Murcia, y en el segundo, Sevilla y Córdoba.

El yeísmo de las capitales de Avila, Albacete, Madrid, Valladolid y otros centros urbanos es reconocido especialmente por el ejemplo de las clases instruídas. (Se ve el aflojamiento articulatorio /l̯/ a /y/ primero en los jóvenes, y en las mujeres antes que los hombres.)

SECTOR NOROESTE

En Asturias y León, independientemente de las zonas mencionadas, variantes derivadas del viejo yeísmo dialectal, mantenidas en los lugares de tradición más arraigada, ponen resistencia tanto al yeísmo moderno como a la /l̯/ normal. De los 24 pueblos estudiados en Asturias, tres de habla gallega, dijeron "cabalo, castelo y cuitelo". En 20 de los restantes, caballo fue pronunciado con /l̯/, castillo con /l̯/ en 14, y cuchillo con /l̯/ en 10. Los ejemplos lleístas de caballo y castillo se extienden por toda la provincia; los de cuchillo se dan principalmente en el lado oriental. Al oeste, el sonido dialectal ápicoalveolar africado /s/, apareció con distinto grado de apoyo en cada palabra: 9 veces en cuchillo, 4 en castillo y ninguna en caballo. El terreno que el sonido dialectal va perdiendo no lo gana la /y/ sino la /l/. El yeísmo moderno que al parecer ha ganado terreno en Oviedo y Gijón, no parece haber ejercido gran influencia fuera de estas ciudades. El único punto en que las tres palabras fueron pronunciadas con /y/, fue Freal, al noroeste.

Los datos referentes a León muestran /l̯/ uniforme por toda la provincia en caballo y castillo, y cuchillo - 9 veces con /l̯/

y 2 con /ŝ/, y una vez con sonido predorsopalatal africado semejante al /ĉ/ castellana, en Páramo de Sil, también al norte de la provincia.

CRUCE DE INFLUENCIAS

La pronunciación de /l/ en vez de /ļ/ ocurre en los lugares fronterizos--asturianos, leoneses, zamoranos y cacereños--de habla gallega o portuguesa.

En la frontera catalana-aragonesa las interferencias son menores (la /ļ/ existe en catalan y aragonés). Caballo no disputa a cavall el dominio de ningún punto de lengua catalana o valenciana, ni castillo ha invadido porción alguna del territorio de castell (con excepción de Benasque, donde se recogió castielo). En cambio, cuchillo parece haber desterrado a ganivet de todos los pueblos aragoneses de habla catalana, con excepción de Maella, Zaragoza. La situación en Castellón, Valencia y Alicante es de clara y regular división entre caballo, castillo y cuchillo, con /ļ/, de los pueblos que hablan castellano en estas provincias, y cavall, castell y ganivet de los que hablan valenciano.

FLUCTUACION

La fluctuación ocurre en mayor medida y variedad entre las modalidades del yeísmo, tanto en la zona intermedia o de transición como en la de yeísmo pleno.

Aunque la oscilación de cada palabra, especialmente en las provincias de yeísmo parcial, recorrió todos los matices, varios casos hacen recaer sobre la ll de cuchillo el mayor número de modificaciones, a lo cual contribuye probablemente, además de su propia composición fonética, el nivel familiar de su categoría semántica.

RESUMEN

Se considera como causa general del yeísmo la antigua y persistente tendencia al ablandamiento articulatorio que ha ejercido tan extensa influencia en las lenguas y dialectos romances.

Existen en la Península tres focos de yeísmo, independientes entre sí: el asturiano-leonés, el catalán-balear y el andaluz. La única zona peninsular extenta de yeísmo es la del gallego-portugués.

El yeísmo asturiano-leonés y el balear-catalán son de carácter antiguo, condicionado y popular, y aparecen actualmente como un fenómeno en retroceso. El andaluz es relativamente moderno, afecta a la ll en cualquier origen y en cualquier posición, prospera especialmente en los círculos instruídos y se halla en situación de desarrollo y expansión.

El moderno yeísmo de caballo, castillo y cuchillo, en lugares de Santander y Asturias, sin contacto visible con la corriente del sur, se relaciona probablemente con el de la propia tradición dialectal.

El centro más intenso de yeísmo en el habla popular de Andalucía comprende la parte oriental de la región, desde Cádiz a Almería. Hacia el oeste, algunos pueblos muestran /l̯/ en Córdoba y Sevilla y especialmente en Huelva.

Desde Andalucía, el yeísmo ha debido ir ganando terreno hacia el norte por Extremadura y por el oeste de Castilla. La extensión del yeísmo por Castilla alcanza en el habla popular hasta Madrid y Avila. El avance ha sido menor por el lado oriental de la región.

Yeísmo andaluz--un siglo después del yeísmo americano. Es de suponer que uno y otro surgirían de manera independiente por análogas tendencias, y que existirían en el habla por un período más o menos largo antes de reflejarse en la literatura.

Así, pues, en poco más de dos siglos, el yeísmo se ha impuesto enteramente en gran parte de Andalucía, ha reducido a escasos límites el uso de la ll normal en el resto de la región y ha ganado considerable terreno en varias de las provincias cercanas.

5t;

## DICTATION

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Read passage (given below) once all the way through at a normal speed, keeping clear diction, etc.

Second reading: Advise participants to write a PHONETIC transcription of the material dictated. (Pauses should be provided.)

Third reading: Read passage all the way through at a normal speed.

Check transcription: Have one participant put transcription on blackboard and check through and correct.

Time needed: 20 minutes

TEXT FOR DICTATION

"Llámame después," le dijo el mozo al muchacho, "y podemos ir al cine."

"No sé si voy a poder ir esta tarde," le contestó Chalito. "Tengo que ayudarle a mi padre."

"No importa...otro día será."

5,

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION (CONT'D.)
VI. 9-12

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Follow presentation previously used.

On Review of Dalbor, Chapter 17, have participants follow charts and discuss different phonemes and allophones. Discuss the allophonic distribution, dialectal variations and contrasts with English. Do drills as time permits (preferably exercise C on pp. 112-113.)

Time needed: 60 minutes (about 15 minutes per segment)

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 16-19.

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION (CONT'D.)
VI. 13-16

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Follow presentation previously used.

Time needed: 60 minutes (about 15 minutes per segment)

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 20-23

On Chapter 23, have participants (individually) read aloud the sentences in Exercise D. pp. 149-150 and divide the sentences into syllables orthographically. Then have them write the phonetic transcription of several of the sentences, and check them on the board.

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Read: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter V & VI; Dalbor, Chapters 12, 17 and 22.

Answer questions from Dalbor on pp. 84-5; 113; 144.

Select three or four participants to devise a one- to two-minute exercise based on present lesson (one specific point for each person) and have participants present the exercise at next session, much in the same way as they would to their own students.

SESSION III

| Topic | Minutes | Mater |
|---|---|---|
| Discussion and questions | 25 | Politzer-Staubac |
| VI. Teaching pronunciation | | |
| B. Spanish vowels<br>1. /e/<br>2. /a/<br>3. /o/<br>4. /i/ and semi-vowel /i/<br>5. /u/ and semi-vowel /u/<br>6. Vowel combinations | 60 | Handouts: Vowel<br>English and Span<br><br>Totality of Vowe<br>for English Spe |
| C. Liason: consonant and vowel linking (enlace) | 30 | |
| BREAK | 20 | |
| D. Suprasegmentals<br>1. Intonation<br>a. Stress<br>b. Pitch<br>c. Juncture<br>2. Types of stress<br>3. Types of pitch<br>4. Types of juncture<br>5. Rhythm and extra-linguistic features | 30 | |
| E. Recapitulation of problems of interference from English | 15 | |
| VII. Morphology (word classes and morphological characteristics) | 60 | |

SESSION III

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| ns | 25 | Politzer-Staubach; Dalbor | 47 |
| iation | | | 48 |
| s | 60 | Handouts: Vowel charts - English and Spanish | 49 |
| mi-vowel /i/<br>mi-vowel /u/<br>inations | | Totality of Vowel Problem for English Speakers | 50 |
| onant and vowel<br>ace) | 30 | | 51 |
| | 20 | | |
| ls | 30 | | 52 |
| e<br>tress<br>itch<br>uncture<br>extra-linguistic | | | |
| n of problems of<br>from English | 15 | | |
| classes and<br>haracteristics) | 60 | | 55 |

SESSION III (CONT'D.)

| Topic | Minutes | Mater |
|---|---|---|
| A. Morphemes<br>1. Free<br>2. Bound | | Handout: Morp |
| B. Nouns | | |
| C. Adjectives | | |
| D. Pronouns | | |
| E. Verbs | | |
| F. Derivations | | |
| ASSIGNMENT SHEET | | |
| Evaluation | | |

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | Handout: Morphology Chart | 59 |
| | | | 60 |

## DISCUSSION AND QUESTIONS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants answer questions: Dalbor, pp. 84-5 and pp. 113; 144.

Discuss Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VI and some of questions in Politzer-Staubach, pp. 181-182, 1-10.

Have participants do demonstration teaching (as assigned in previous session).

Time needed: 25 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 12, 17, 22
Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VI

TEACHING PRONUNCIATION (cont'd)
SPANISH VOWELS

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Participants should follow along in Dalbor, Chapters 24-30. Pay particular attention to the sections entitled "Dialectal Variations" and "Contrasts with English" in each chapter. Have the participants read aloud exercise "C" in each chapter (pp. 164, 169, 175, 183). You may then have them do a phonemic transcription of several of the sentences and check their transcription in Appendix D, as indicated.

In Chapter 30, Vowel Combinations, review (after initial presentation) on pp. 190-191 the types of vowel combinations and have several participants read aloud the examples given. If time permits, you may have the participants do a phonemic transcription of the phrases on p. 197 and check it in Appendix D.

Time needed: 60 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 24-30
Politzer-Staubach, pp. 80-89.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

See list at end of Chapter 24, Dalbor.

Also: Bowen and Stockwell, Patterns of Spanish Pronunciation
Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

HANDOUTS: 1, Charts of English and Spanish Vowels; 2. Discuss "Totality of Vowel Problem for English Speaker"

VOWEL PHONEMES OF SPANISH

| | Front | Central | Back |
|---|---|---|---|
| High | i | | u |
| Mid | e | | o |
| Low | | a | |

VOWEL PHONEMES OF ENGLISH

| | Front | Central | Back |
|---|---|---|---|
| High | i | ɨ | u |
| Mid | e | ə | o |
| Low | æ | a | ɔ |

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TOTALITY OF VOWEL PROBLEM FOR ENGLISH SPEAKERS

| | ENGLISH | SPANISH |
|---|---|---|
| 1. Vowel structure | Relatively complicated vowel structure | Relatively simple vowel structure |
| 2. Weak-stress vowel contrasts | None | All vowels contrast in this position |
| 3. Segmental changes under weak stress | All vowels change to [ə] or [ɨ] | Minimal changes (one mainly of duration) |
| 4. Levels of stress | 4 levels | 2 levels |
| 5. Vowel duration (syllable length) | Directly proportionate to stress | All syllables basically the same length. (unstressed syllables slightly shorter in rapid speech, but not significant for untrained ear) |
| 6. Rhythm | Phrase-timed | Syllable-timed |
| 7. Pitch/stress relationship | Pitch directly proportionate to stress | Pitch independent of stress |
| 8. Levels of pitch | 4 levels | 3 levels. (4th level reserved for exclamations, cries for help, etc.) |

## LIASON: CONSONANT AND VOWEL LINKING (ENLACE)

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

After presentation of principal types of linkage, do (as time permits) some of the drills in Dalbor, Chapter 31, pp. 200-202. You may then have the participants do exercises A, B, and C on page 202.

The meaning of the Spanish terms hiato, sinéresis and sinalefa should be given. It is also advisable to give a quick review of syllabafication (both orthographic and phonetic) and show how linkage (enlace) relates to the latter.

Time needed: 30 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapter 31
Politzer-Staubach, pp. 86-89.

Recommended reading: Tomás Navarro, Manual de pronunciación española, New York: Hafner Publishing Company, 1957, pp. 66-75.

## SUPRASEGMENTALS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Define stress, pitch and juncture and give several examples in both English and Spanish. (In the case of juncture, it will be more a case of showing that plus juncture is not the vital feature it is in English.) Take examples from Dalbor, Chapters 33-35, and have participants do only some of the exercises on pp. 222, 241 and check their answers in the Appendix D. On p. 250 have the poem given read aloud by one of the participants to illustrate the features of rhythm, hiato, sinéresis and sinalefa (and how they differ from English.)

Also: be sure to define phonic groups. See suggested presentation on next page.

Time needed: 30 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 33-37
Politzer-Staubach, pp. 89-95.

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

See listing at end of Chapters 34-36 in Dalbor.

## SUPRASEGMENTALS

### Suggested Presentation

Stress and Pitch: In writing, letters form words, words form phrases, and phrases form sentences. In speech, we use sounds and sequences of sounds but we do not talk in words; we use words, of course, but we run them together into phrases which we call phonic groups, i.e. the stretch of speech between two pauses.

This is one major reason why we have so much trouble understanding the spoken language when we have used the written language as our point of departure. We had learned words, but when the words are not there, in front of us, and we are left with only a stretch of connected sounds which do not at all indicate the separation of words, then we are lost, and we say: "The trouble is, Spanish speakers talk so fast!" And the foreigner says: "The trouble is, English speakers talk so fast!" And so on for Chinese, Russian, Arabic, etc. Everybody! That is, everybody except those who talk our own language. And the answer to the apparent enigma is simply that our own is the only one we learned audio-lingually.

Within each phonic group we have, apart from the vowels and consonant sounds, the phenomena of stress and pitch.

Stress is loudness or prominence. In Spanish we distinguish two degrees of stress: strong and weak. (hablo, habló; continuo, continúo, continuó).

Pitch is the musical tone or frequency. Spanish distinguishes three levels of pitch: high, middle and low, which we designate simply by three numbers: high- 3, middle- 2, low- 1.

Juncture is the type of pause which often involves a slight change in pitch, stress and tempo. At the end of a phrase, a speaker (in either English or Spanish) may lower the pitch of his voice slightly and trail away into silence /→/; he may raise the pitch slightly and cut off the volume rather sharply /↑/; or he may sustain the pitch, prolonging the last syllable of the phrase, and diminishing the volume slightly /→/.

## RECAPITULATION OF PROBLEMS OF INTERFERENCE FROM ENGLISH

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants follow along in Dalbor, Chapter 38, and give additional examples for each type of interference listed.

Time needed: 15 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapter 38

## MORPHOLOGY (WORD CLASSES AND MORPHOLOGICAL CHARACTERISTICS)

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as the topics are presented.

Time needed: 60 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VII, pp. 100-120

### BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alarcos Llorach, Emilio. Gramática estructural (según la escuela de Copenhague y con especial atención a la lengua española), Madrid: Editorial Gredos, 1951. (This deals with morphology and syntax).

Gleason, pp. 92-127

Belasco and Cardenas

Stockwell, Robert P., J. Donald Bowen, John W. Martin. The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, Chapter 3.

## DEFINITIONS

Morphemes are a combination of phonemes. They are the smallest units of speech which have an identifiable meaning of their own.

## TYPES OF MORPHEMES

Two main categories:

A. Lexical morphemes - those signaling lexical meaning.

B. Grammatical morphemes - those signaling grammatical (or structural) meaning.

A. Lexical morphemes include:

1. Free lexical morphemes - bases (or stems, roots) which may be uttered alone or may enter into various syntactical patterns with other morphemes without losing their "dictionary" meanings:

   Examples: sal, lámpara, capaz, sed, reloj, etc.
   book, thin, child, fast, etc.

2. Bound lexical morphemes - bases requiring the help of another bound morpheme, usually some kind of affix, in actual utterance:

   Examples: hermos-, rápid-, beb-, habl-, viv-, com-, etc.

B. Grammatical morphemes - those signaling grammatical meaning.

1. Bound grammatical morphemes - affixes requiring the help of a lexical morpheme without which they cannot be meaningfully uttered:

   Examples: Adjective number-gender: / -o, -a, -os, -as/;
   Noun plural: / -s, -es, -z, -iz/; (the latter two English)
   Verb person-number, tense-mood: / -aba, -mos, -s, -n, etc./

2. Free/bound grammatical morphemes - exist as "words" but cannot occur as free utterances. They signal grammatical rather than lexical meaning and are systematically limited to certain positions where they do occur:

   Examples: que, me, lo, se, me, para, no, etc.
   that, which, who, so that, do, did, not, etc.

MORPHOLOGY

## NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

### Outline of Presentation

After giving the definitions listed on the preceeding page, present determiners. See Politzer-Staubach, p. 105 and Cárdenas excerpt. (Included as extra material for instructors)

Discuss the advantage of using determiners as markers for gender and number instead of the nouns in the beginning stages of language instruction.

Questions for discussion: What factors of English structure contribute to the difficulties in learning the proper gender and number of nouns in Spanish? E.g.: English has three genders with the neuter being by far the most common. We call a ship "she", a dog, "he" or "she", etc. These three genders have to be fitted into two in Spanish, and the two genders follow no logical choice. (Why is a table feminine and a car masculine, etc?)

The plural markers of English nouns are more complicated and there are definite differences as far as pronunciation is concerned, even though there are similarities of orthography between Spanish and English. The most common markers (plural) in English are: -s, -es (pronounced /s/ or /z/, /iz/. (book-books; dog-dogs; house-houses) (See Cárdenas excerpt, p. 24.) Because of the apparent similarity between English and Spanish plural formation (orthography), students tend to say things like: papels*, razons*, mujers*, etc.

In the discussion of adjectives, discuss the factors of English structure that contribute to the difficulties in learning gender and number agreement of adjectives in Spanish. (See Cárdenas, p. 27 for examples.)

Discuss demonstratives (este, ese, etc.) and types of interference caused by analogy of plural morpheme: e.g. the masculine plural requires a substitution of another form instead of a mere pluralizing morpheme. (este → estos [not estes])*

* Denotes hypothetical form.

Subject pronouns - Discuss interference and transference of English patterns to Spanish.

Morphology

Outline of Presentation (cont'd.)

Questions for discussion

How does the use of the subject pronouns in Spanish and English differ with respect to showing emphasis or contrast?

What is meant by misinformation in the overuse of the subject pronouns in Spanish?

Why are the subject pronouns not as necessary in Spanish for comprehension as compared to English?

Verbs

Have participant follow along while you discuss the verb charts in Politzer-Staubach, pp. 110-113.

Pedagogical point: It seems to be useful to point out to students that the person markers for tú - -s; nosotros = -mos, etc. are reasonably constant in all the tenses, so that when he hears [s], on a verb, he knows it is tú; when he hears [mos], it is first-person plural; and when he hears [n], he knows it is third plural.

Handout: Morphology Chart - go over the chart with the participants and identify each category.

MORPHOLOGY

| Formal Expression | Oppositions | Grammatical Notion | CATEGORY Parts of Speech | Function | Property |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Flexional affix + inflected Det. | [m or f] sg./pl. | [Gender] Number | NOUN N | Subject, Object, etc. | to name |
| Flexional affix | $\frac{f}{sg} + \frac{m}{pl}$ positive/comparative | Gender + Number + degree | ADJECTIVE Aj | modify N | to qualify N |
| Proclitic flexional | $\frac{m}{sg/pl} / \frac{f}{sg/pl}$ | Gender + Number | Determiners: Articles, etc. | | to introduce N |
| Proclitic disjunctive Flexional | | Person +(Gender)+ Number (+ Function) | Pronouns cf. NOUN | Subject - Object etc. | to "replace" N to "introduce" V |
| Flexional affix person/tense paradigms | | relative time etc. | VERB V | Predicator | to report |
| Invariable: syntactic | positive/comparative | degree | ADVERB AV | modify V, etc. | qualify V - clause |
| Syntactic position | | cf. adverb | Prepositions | | to relate N..N etc. |
| Syntactic position | | cf preposition | Conjunctions | | to relate Cl..Cl |
| | | | Interjections | | |

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MORPHOLOGY

| itions | Grammatical Notion | CATEGORY Parts of Speech | Function | Property | Rank | Semantic |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | [Gender] Number | NOUN N | Subject, Object, etc. | to name | 1 | "thing etc." |
| /comparative | Gender + Number degree | ADJECTIVE Aj | modify N | to qualify N | 2 | attribute |
| | Gender + Number | Determiners: Articles, etc. | | to introduce N | | |
| | Person +(Gender)+ Number (+ Function) | Pronouns cf. NOUN | {Subject - Object etc.} | to "replace" N to "introduce" V | | cf. N |
| | relative time etc. | VERB V | Predicator | to report | 1 | deed, state etc. |
| /comparative | degree | ADVERB AV | modify V, etc. | qualify V - clause | 2-3 | manner, time, place; negation etc. circumstance |
| | cf. adverb | Prepositions | | to relate N..N etc. | | cf Adverb |
| | cf preposition | Conjunctions | | to relate Cl..Cl | | cf Adverb |
| | | Interjections | | | | |

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Read: Dalbor, Chapters 32, 37, 38 and 39.

Answer questions on pp. 208-9, 254-55.

Read Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VII; Answer questions on pp. 183-4.

Select three or four participants to devise a one- to two-minute exercise based on present lesson (one specific point for each person) and have participants present the exercise at next session, much in the same way as they would to their own students.

SESSION IV

| Topic | Minutes | Materia |
|---|---|---|
| Questions and discussion of Dalbor, pp. 208-9, 254-55; Politzer-Staubach, pp. 183-84 | 20 | Politzer-Staubac<br>Dalbor |
| VII. Syntax | | |
| A. Definition and introduction | 15 | |
| B. Basic sentence types | 15 | Handouts: Chart |
| C. The Noun phrase and its constituents | | Sentence Patter |
| 1. Determiners | 60 | |
| 2. Demonstratives and possessives | | |
| 3. Mass nouns and count nouns | | |
| 4. Adjective positions | | |
| 5. Neuter | | |
| BREAK | 20 | |
| D. The Verb phrase | 40 | Handouts: |
| 1. Auxiliary constituents | | Auxiliary Consti |
| a. Perfective and imperfective | | The Verb |
| b. Conditional and future | | Environments of |
| | | Transitive Verbs |
| 2. Other Constituents | 70 | Transitive - int |
| a. Ser and estar | (15) | Mass Nouns and C |
| b. Verb classes | (25) | Nominalization |
| c. Non-verbal constituents | (10) | |
| d. Direct objects | (10) | |
| e. Object pronouns | (10) | |
| ASSIGNMENT SHEET | | |
| Evaluation | | |

SESSION IV

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| of Dalbor, pp. 208-9, h, pp. 183-84 | 20 | Politzer-Staubach; Dalbor | 62 |
| | | | 63 |
| introduction | 15 | | |
| types | 15 | Handouts: Charts of Basic Sentence Patterns (5) | 68-73 |
| and its constituents | 60 | | |
| es and possessives | | | |
| nd count nouns | | | |
| sitions | | | |
| | 20 | | |
| | 40 | Handouts: | |
| onstituents | | Auxiliary Constituents of Verbs | 78 |
| e and imperfective | | The Verb | 81 |
| al and future | | Environments of Ser and estar | 94 |
| | | Transitive Verbs | 96 |
| ituents | 70 | Transitive - intransitive Verbs | 97 |
| estar | (15) | Mass Nouns and Count Nouns | 137-46 |
| sses | (25) | Nominalization | 76a |
| al constituents | (10) | | |
| bjects | (10) | | |
| ronouns | (10) | | |
| | | | 99 |

## DISCUSSION AND QUESTIONS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants answer questions in Dalbor, pp. 208-9, and 254-55. Also answer questions on pp. 183-84 of Politzer-Staubach.

Discuss as needed.

Have participants do demonstration teaching (as assigned in previous session).

Time needed: 20 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Dalbor, Chapters 32, 37, 38 and 39.
Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VII

SYNTAX

DEFINITION AND INTRODUCTION

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topic is presented. Give examples on the board where necessary.

Time needed: 15 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII (refers to syntax in general and teaching syntactical patterns.)

Recommended reading: Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, Chapter 1

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton, 1969, Chapters 1, 2, and 3.

Jacobs, Roderick A. and Peter S. Rosenbaum. Grammar 1 and Grammar 2, New York: Ginn and Co., 1967.

Salas, Peter H., Linguistics, Chapter 3.

# SYNTAX

## DEFINITION AND INTRODUCTION

### Outline of Presentation

Define syntax: words (composed of derivational, lexical, and grammatical morphemes) joined together to make up larger units of speech, such as phrases, sentences, etc.

Point out that there are several definitions that have been given to the word "grammar," of which syntax forms an inexorable part, and that there are several methods of approaching the syntactical analysis of a language. The main ones are as follows:

1. Grammar is viewed as a set of rules to discriminate between educated usage and all other varieties of usage. In this respect it is prescriptive about norms of usage.

2. Grammar is a classification of the signals which differentiate one sentence from another. (This is called Signals Grammar, Formalistic Grammar: Stockwell, 1963; or Taxonomic Grammar: Chomsky, 1964.)

3. Grammar is seen as a finite number of sentence patterns, each pattern containing one or more slots within which a corresponding class of lexical units may replace one another. (This is sometimes called Slot-and-Substitution Grammar.)

4. Grammar is defined as a description of the probability relationships between lexical units in sequence. (This is call a Finite-State Grammar.)

5. Grammar is a description of the degrees of closeness - or clustering - of lexical units in sequence. (This is called Immediate Constituent Analysis or Phrase Structure Grammar: Gleason, 1961.)

6. Grammar is viewed as a set of phrase structure rules for the derivation of simple active declarative sentences, combined with a set of transformational rules which, when applied to the sentences derived by the phrase structure rules, add to, subtract from, or modify the order within them, or combine them in complex ways. (This is called Transformational Grammar.)

Examples for the above are in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, Chapter 1. Give a brief example of each type of grammatical approach. Relate the above to the definitions given in Politzer-Staubach, Chapter

VIII. (It should be pointed out that Stockwell, Bowen and Martin's book came out after Politzer's statement that there were no exhaustive analyses of Spanish using any one of the methods he ennumerates. Stockwell, Bowen and Martin follow No. 6 above rather carefully.)

SYNTAX

BASIC SENTENCE TYPES

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topic is presented.

Time needed: 15 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII

Recommended reading: Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, Chapter 1.
Chomsky, Noam, Chapters 1, 2, and 3.
Jacobs and Rosenbaum.
Salas, Peter H., Chapter 3.

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SYNTAX

BASIC SENTENCE TYPES

Outline of Presentation

Give the "Handouts" to the participants and point out the constituents and their abbreviations.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for fuller explanation, detail and examples, (pp. 25 ff.)

Point out that all the examples given in the charts handed out are examples of Active Declarative Sentences. These sentences will be modified subsequently... that is, transformed into passive, negatives, interrogatives, etc.

The individual syntactical points will be taken up later. At this time, it is important to indicate the basic types of sentences found in Spanish.

See also page 33 of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, and give examples of the patterns listed therein. These include those patterns not listed in the handouts.

8.

## BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

A.

1.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | VP:-ser | NP:Pred. |
| El<br>Ellas | es<br>son | el nuevo consul.<br>muchachas. |

2.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | VP:-ser | ADJ.: Pred. |
| Usted<br>La nieve<br>El<br>Los regalos | es<br>es<br>es<br>fueron | simpático.<br>blanca.<br>de Madrid.<br>para mi padre. |

3.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | VP:-ser | ADV. |
| La corrida<br>La corrida | es<br>será | en la Plaza Mayor.<br>a las cuatro. |

4.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | VP:-estar | ADJ.: Pred. |
| La sopa<br>El | está<br>está | fría.<br>aburrido. |

B.

1.

| 1 | 2 | |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_i$ | |
| Ellas<br>El | hablan bien.<br>está allí. | |

C.

1a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_t$ | (a) + NP:DO |
| Ellas<br>Los muchachos | quieren<br>querían | el pan.<br>a sus padres. |

1b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_t$ |
| Ellas<br>Los muchachos<br>El<br>Esos | los<br>los<br>se<br>se | quieren.<br>querían.<br>acostó.<br>perdieron. |

D.

1a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | VP | NP:DO | para<br>a + NP |
| El<br>Ella | dio<br>hizo | el dinero<br>un trabajo | a María.<br>para mí. |

1b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_2$ | $VP_t$ | NP:DO | (a + NP) |
| El<br>Ella | le<br>me | dio<br>hizo | el dinero<br>un trabajo | (a María).<br>(a mí). |

1c.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_3$<br>$Pron_2$ | $Pron_1$ | $VP_t$ | (a + NP) |
| El<br>Ella | se<br>me | lo<br>lo | dio<br>hizo | (a María.)<br>(a mí.) |

1d.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_3$ | $Pron_2$ | $VP_t$ | (a +NP) |
| El dinero<br>Su nombre | se<br>se | le<br>me | perdió<br>olvidó | (a Jose.)<br>(a mí.) |

E.

1a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | NP:Comp | (a) + NP |
| Ellos | eligieron | presidente | a Juan. |
| Su padre | consideraba | un hombre | a Juan. |

1b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_{tc}$ | NP:Comp |
| Ellos | lo | eligieron | presidente. |
| Su padre | lo | consideraba | un hombre. |

2a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | ADJ:Comp | (a) + NP:DO |
| Ellos | consideraban | capacitado | a Juan. |
| Ellos | creían | bonita | a María. |

2b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_{tc}$ | ADJ:Comp |
| Ellos | lo | consideraban | capacitado. |
| Ellos | la | creían | bonita. |

3a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | (a) + NP:DO | $VP_{i-inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | vi | a los hombres | correr. |
| Yo | observé | a los huéspedes | salir a las dos. |

3b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | $VP_{i-inf}$:Comp | (a) + NP:DO |
| Yo | vi | correr | a los hombres. |
| Yo | observé | salir | a los huéspedes. |
| Yo | oí | tronar | ($P_{3+\emptyset}$). |

3c.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_{tc}$ | $VP_{i\text{-}inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | los | vi | correr. |
| Yo | los | observé | salir. |

4a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | (a) + NP:DO | $VP_{t\text{-}inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | escuché | al hombre | leer el libro. |
| Yo | oí | a la señorita | leerlo. |
| Yo | vi | al niño | leérselo. |

4b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_{tc}$ | $VP_{t\text{-}inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | lo | escuché | leer.* |
| Yo | los | vi | fusilar.* |
| Yo | los | vi | fusilarla. |

4c.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | (a) + NP:DO | $VP_{inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | mandé | al hombre | salir. |
| Yo | permití | al niño | leerlo. |

4d.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_2$ | $VP_{tc}$ | $VP_{inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | le | mandé | salir. |
| Yo | le | permití | leerlo. |

* When there is only one pronoun with two transitive verbs, it may be taken as object of the complement verb: I heard (someone) read it, ordinarily translated as a passive, I heard it read. Similarly, I saw (someone) shoot them, I saw them shot. or it may be taken as subject of the complement verb, I saw them shoot.

5a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | (a) +NP:DO | VP-ndo:Comp |
| Yo | vi | a los hombres | corriendo. |
| Yo | vi | a los huéspedes | saliendo. |
| Yo | escuché | al hombre | leyendo el libro. |
| Yo | escuché | al hombre | leyéndolo. |

5b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $Pron_1$ | $VP_{tc}$ | VP-ndo:Comp |
| Yo | lo | escuché | corriendo. |
| Yo | los | vi | saliendo. |
| Yo | los | vi | fusilándola. |

6.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{tc}$ | $VP_{inf}$:Comp |
| El | quiere | ir. |
| El | dijo | estar en casa. |
| El | debe | tomar cerveza. |

7.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_{t/i}$ | Rel | $VP_{inf}$:Comp |
| El | tiene | que | ir a casa. |
| El | acaba | de | salir. |

8a.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj. | $VP_i$ | Rel | $VP_{inf}$:Comp |
| Yo | voy | a | salir. |
| El | va | a | comprarlo. |

8b.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| NP:Subj | $VP_i$ | VP-ndo:Comp |
| La gente | anda | corriendo. |
| El | viene | llorando. |

Fl.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| Hay | $NP_{indef}$ | (ADV) |
| Hay | un señor | afuera. |
| Hay | amigos | en las montañas. |

2.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| Hay | $NP_{indef}$ | que + $VP_{inf}$ |
| Hay | mucho | que hacer. |
| Hay | unos hombres | que venir. |

3.

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| Hay | que | $VP_{inf}$ |
| Hay | que | hacer eso. |
| Hay | que | salir. |

# THE NOUN PHRASE AND ITS CONSTITUENTS

## NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes and discuss as topics are presented.

Time needed: 60 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, Chapter 1.

Chomsky, Noam. Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton, 1969, Chapters 1, 2, and 3.

Jacobs, Roderick A. and Peter S. Rosenbaum. Grammar 1 and Grammar 2, New York: Ginn and Co., 1967.

Salas, Peter H., Linguistics, Chapter 3.

## THE NOUN PHRASE AND ITS CONSTITUENTS

Outline of Presentation

The Noun Phrase consists of two kinds of structure: a. external* and b. internal.** External structure includes functions such as:

1. subject of the verb
2. object of the verb
3. object of preposition
4. noun predicate (pred. nom.)
5. complement (pred. adj.)

The Noun Phrase (NP) consists of Determiner + Noun + Number (i.e., as a noun is selected, so is its number - s.vs. pl.)

1. Determiner (Det.) In both Spanish and English there are two sets of Determiners (definite and indefinite articles.) In spite of the similarities, certain problems do arise (we have already seen the morphological ones.) Both languages may choose a direct article, an indirect article, or no determiner at all. The possible correlations are as follows:

| | ENGLISH | SPANISH |
|---|---|---|
| 1) | the | el |
| 2) | a | un |
| 3) | Ø | Ø |
| 4) | the | un |
| 5) | the | Ø |
| 6) | a | el |
| 7) | a | Ø |
| 8) | Ø | el |
| 9) | Ø | un |

(The examples given in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 68-73, for patterns 4-9 above, should be referred to at this point. Give several examples of contrastive patterns.)

2. Demonstratives Two other sub-classes of adjectives. The demonstratives and the possessives can replace the primary determiners in a NP. Both demonstratives and possessives can follow the noun. They then function as an adjective.

Since only one determiner may appear in a single simple noun phrase, if it is either a demonstrative or a possessive, preceding the noun, then there will be no other determiner. If the demonstrative or possessive follows the noun, a determiner (usually a form of el) will precede.

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* their function within larger entities

** the units of which they are composed: e.g. morphemes

The four forms of the demonstratives in English (this, these, that, those) give way to fifteen forms in Spanish.

(Refer to chart on p. 73 of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin.)

The possessives may follow or precede the noun. When they follow, they function as limiting adjectives; when they precede, they function as determiners. (Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 75-77 and extract examples of interference, especially re: suyo on p. 76.)

3. Mass Nouns and Count Nouns. An important distinction is that made between count nouns and mass nouns, based, generally, on the criterion of measurement by amount or volume (e.g. mass nouns: water, earth, wheat) vs. quantity or number (e.g. count nouns: book, egg, house.)

Interference occurs when a word classified as a mass noun in one language is classified as a count noun in the others. Give handouts of list of words and go over a few of the examples given. (See Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 82-86.)

Also point out that while the same distinction exists between mass and count nouns in both Spanish and English, in the former, a very large number of nouns function both as mass and as count nouns. (Refer to examples on p. 87 of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin.)

4. Adjective Position. The position of the adjective implies its limiting or descriptive function. Usually, adjective preceding the noun are limiting while those following are descriptive. However, many adjectives classified as descriptive can precede or follow the noun with little change of meaning. Others express a readily discernible semantic distinction depending on their position. (Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 89 and extract examples.)

Also, read Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 91-93 re: Comparison and give some examples of the potential interference from English or confusions the students might encounter.

5. Neuter. The neuter does not exist as a class. However, it is a convenient categorization for a type of nominalization that occurs (i.e. Modifiers grammatically replace nouns which are deleted from a construction. This occurs with adjectives; p. 102, Stockwell, Bowen and Martin gives examples of this kind of nominalization.)

The construction of lo otro, lo americano illustrates a different kind of nominalization. It refers to an aggregate or conglomerate of circumstances or qualities: e.g. lo bueno, lo más importante, lo difícil, etc. (Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 103-4 for examples and comparison of English and Spanish structures.)

NOMINALIZATION

| Todo | Determiners | Limiting Adjective | Descriptive Adjective | Noun | Descriptive Adjective or Possessive | Ph |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| todo | el | otro | bueno | | moderno | de |
| | un | mismo | bonito | | americano | |
| | mi | segundo | simpático | | verde | |
| | este | último | nuevo | | mío | |
| 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | | 1 | |

76a

NOMINALIZATION

| ers | Limiting Adjective | Descriptive Adjective | Noun | Descriptive Adjective or Possessive | Phrase | Clause |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | otro | bueno | | moderno | de . . | que . . |
| | mismo | bonito | | americano | | |
| | segundo | simpático | | verde | | |
| | último | nuevo | | mío | | |
| | 3 | 2 | | 1 | | |

SYNTAX: THE VERB PHRASE

AUXILIARY CONSTITUENTS

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Read Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, Chapter 6 and Paige's paper (here attached.) Also read Bull, William E. Spanish for Teachers: Applied Linguistics, Chapter 14.

Have participants take notes as topics are presented.

Time needed: 40 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII

Recommended reading: Bull, Spanish for Teachers, Chapter 14

Politzer, Robert, Foreign Language Learning, A Linguistic Introduction, Chapter III, 84-91.

Handouts: 1. English-Spanish Verb Chart of Auxiliary Constituents

2. Verb Chart

AUXILIARY CONSTITUENTS OF VERB

| ENGLISH | | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Expl of t |
| spoke | Past | habló<br>hablaba | Perfec<br>Imperf |
| was speaking | Past, Currency | hablaba<br>estuvo hablando<br>estaba hablando | Imperf<br>Perfec<br>Dur<br>Imperf<br>Dur |

* Explicit Duration is abbreviated in the chart to Duration.

| ENGLISH | | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Expl of t |
| had spoken | Past, Relevant Anteriority | hubo hablado<br>había hablado | Perfec<br>Relev<br>Imperf<br>Relev |

AUXILIARY CONSTITUENTS OF VERB

| LISH | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|
| Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary |
| Past | habló<br>hablaba | Perfective (Past)<br>Imperfective, Past |
| Past, Currency | hablaba<br>estuvo hablando<br>estaba hablando | Imperfective, Past<br>Perfective (Past), Duration<br>Imperfective, Past, Duration* |

ion is abbreviated in the chart to Duration.

| LISH | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|
| Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary |
| Past, Relevant Anteriority | hubo hablado<br>había hablado | Perfective (Past), Relevant Anteriority<br>Imperfective, Past, Relevant Anteriority |

| ENGLISH | | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Ex of |
| had been speaking | Past, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | hubo estado hablando<br>había estado hablando | Perfe Rele Dura<br>Imper Rele Dura |
| would speak | Past, Subsequence | hablaría | Past, |
| would be speaking | Past, Subsequence, Currency | estaría hablando | Past, Durat |
| would have spoken | Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority | habría hablado | Past, Relev |
| would have been speaking | Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | habría estado hablando | Past, Relev Durat |
| speaks | Non-past | habla | Imperf |
| is speaking | Non-past, Currency | está hablando | Imperf Durat |

| GLISH | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|
| Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary |
| Past, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | hubo estado hablando | Perfective (Past), Relevant Anteriority, Duration |
| | había estado hablando | Imperfective, Past, Relevant Anteriority, Duration |
| Past, Subsequence | hablaría | Past, Subsequence |
| Past, Subsequence, Currency | estaría hablando | Past, Subsequence, Duration |
| Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority | habría hablado | Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority |
| Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | habría estado hablando | Past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Duration |
| Non-past | habla | Imperfective, Non-past |
| Non-past, Currency | está hablando | Imperfective, Non-past Duration |

| ENGLISH | | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Exp of |
| has spoken | Non-past, Relevant Anteriority | ha hablado | Imperf Relev |
| has been speaking | Non-past, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | ha estado hablando | Imperf Relev Durat |
| will speak | Non-past, Subsequence | hablará | Non-pa |
| will be speaking | Non-past, Subsequence Currency | estará hablando | Non-pa Durat |
| will have spoken | Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority | habrá hablado | Non-pa Relev |
| will have been speaking | Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | habrá estado hablando | Non-pa Relev Durat |

| GLISH | SPANISH | |
|---|---|---|
| Explicit Content of the Auxiliary | Verb Form | Explicit Content of the Auxiliary |
| Non-past, Relevant Anteriority | ha hablado | Imperfective, Non-past, Relevant Anteriority |
| Non-past, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | ha estado hablando | Imperfective, Non-past, Relevant Anteriority, Duration |
| Non-past, Subsequence | hablará | Non-past, Subsequence |
| Non-past, Subsequence Currency | estará hablando | Non-past, Subsequence, Duration |
| Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority | habrá hablado | Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority |
| Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Currency | habrá estado hablando | Non-past, Subsequence, Relevant Anteriority, Duration |

VERB

| Forms | Opposition | Grammatical Notion | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Indicative/<br>Subjunctive/<br>Imperative | | Mood | Actual<br>Potent<br>Passiv |
| Stem + Aff/<br>Ser + p pl | Active/<br>Passive | Voice | |
| Paradigms | Imperfect<br>Preterite<br>- - - - -<br>Present<br>Future | Tense | Relati<br>- - -<br>past/n |
| aba, ía/é; í<br>...etc... | Impf/pret | Perspective<br>in<br>Past | descri<br>narrat |
| Simple/compound | aux + p pl<br>Tense | Aspect 1<br>Perfective/<br>non-perfective | "accon<br>"hecho |
| Si.. in present<br>- - - - - -<br>in past | Pres/Pres<br>Future<br>- - - - - - - - -<br>Imp/cond<br>plupft/cond pref | Aspect 2<br>real/unreal | true f<br>contra |

VERB

| Opposition | Grammatical Notion | Semantic |
|---|---|---|
| | Mood | Actual<br>Potential<br>Passive |
| Active/<br>Passive | Voice | |
| Imperfect<br>Preterite<br>- - - - -<br>Present<br>Future | Tense | Relative time, etc.<br>- - - - - - - - - - -<br>past/non-past |
| Impf/pret | Perspective<br>in<br>Past | descriptive/<br>narrative |
| aux + p pl<br>Tense | Aspect 1<br>Perfective/<br>non-perfective | "accompli"<br>"hecho" |
| Pres/Pres<br>Future<br>- - - - - - - - -<br>Imp/cond<br>plupft/cond pref | Aspect 2<br>real/unreal | true to fact/<br>contrary to fact |

| Forms | Opposition | Grammatical Notion | |
|---|---|---|---|
| acaba de + inf | in past | Aspect 3 | proxim |
| va a + inf | in future | | remote |
| Finite | Paradigm | Person<br>Number | |
| Non-finite | | Infinitive cf. Noun<br>Participles cf. Adj. | |

| | Opposition | Grammatical Notion | Semantic |
|---|---|---|---|
| | in past<br>---<br>in future | Aspect 3 | proximate/<br>---<br>remote |
| | Paradigm | Person<br>Number | |
| | | Infinitive cf. Noun<br>Participles cf. Adj. | |

"A Comparison of Tense and Aspect in the Verb Systems of English and Spanish"

English. Spanish. Two different languages -- two different structured systems of communication. Although the two languages share many features due to their historical relationship as members of the Indo-European language family, each has developed in a unique manner. Central to each language is the verb system. A comparison of the categories of tense and aspect in the verb systems of English and Spanish presents some of the more interesting similarities and contrasts.

A few general statements can be made to provide a cohesive framework for discussion. One of the major problems encountered in such a comparison is that of terminology -- what exactly is tense, and, in the same manner, what is aspect? These terms have been used by different linguists to describe different sets of defining characteristics. For example, the key issue in the treatment of tense, at least as it applies to English and Spanish, seems to be how the linguist relates the grammatical marking of the verb to its temporal function. Also, the divergence in the interpretation of the term "aspect" is so great, that the very existence of this category is questioned by some linguists.

This discussion will begin with the category of tense and will be concerned mainly with the analyses of English by Martin Joos in The English Verb and Stockwell, Bowen and Martin in The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, as well as with the analysis of Spanish presented by the latter linguists in the same book. The procedure will be to examine first the different concepts of tense and then to point out the advantages and disadvantages of each analysis. This same procedure will also be used to discuss the category of aspect.

In discussions of the tense category, there is general agreement that English has only two tenses, although the exact nature of the tenses proposed vary from one analysis to the other. The number of tenses present in Spanish is in dispute (as will be discussed later) and hinges on the choice of definition of the term "tense." Therefore, it is imperative to establish the two contrastive definitions.

Most linguists seem to agree that "tense" is at least some kind of a grammatical marking of the verb. However, the relation of form to function, as well as the nature of the function, are still matters for argument. Taking one point of view, Stockwell, Bowen and Martin in The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish posit two tenses in both English and Spanish and state that the tense divisions are the same in both languages.[1]

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[1]Robert P. Stockwell, J. Donald Bowen, John W. Martin, The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, The University of Chicago Press, 1965, p. 148.

Futhermore, the distinction made between the two tenses is based on temporal function. For example, the "past" tense is described as "anterior to the moment of speaking," or "re-collected from the moment of speaking."[2] The "non-past," then, is anything that is not "past." These definitions would seem to establish temporal quality as an integral part of the tense concept in both languages and set up a direct relationship between the grammatical marking and temporal function. The result of this particular concept can be seen in the subsequent analysis, which at times almost implies that the verb systems, especially that of English, are time-based entities.[3]

In The English Verb, Martin Joos takes issue with this view of tense, at least as it relates to the English verb. While not denying the existence of a relationship between a temporal function and the grammatical marking of the verb, he stresses the fact that any such relationship is not a direct one. Nor is it the only possible relationship. The implication is that time is frequently not considered pertinent and therefore is not definitely expressed. While temporal quality may be expressed by the verb, it is usually a by-product of other functions of the verb. Rather, temporal quality is more often expressed by adverbials or by the semantic content of the whole utterance.

As a first step to effect such an analysis, Joos redefines the two tenses in non-temporal terms, designating new labels to serve as abbreviations of the concepts. The "non-past" becomes the "actual" tense, and the "past" becomes the "remote" tense. The "actual" tense is described in terms of the "remote" tense in the same manner that "non-past" was described in terms of "past" by Stockwell, Bowen and Martin. Defining the "remote" tense, Joos states: "The modern remote tense in English has the categorical meaning that the referent (what is specified by the subject-verb partnership) is absent from that part of the world where the verb is being spoken."[4] The difference in point of view from that of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin is quite clear. While they limit their definition of "past" tense first as a direct derivative of the time-scale and secondly as a deviation occurring in only one direction, --anterior, Joos widens the scope of the "remote" tense to include all deviation or absence from the place of speaking, as well as removing the restriction on temporal quality as the only function of tense.

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[2] Ibid., p. 135.

[3] Ibid., p. 148.

[4] Martin, Joos, The English Verb, The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison and Milwaukee, 1964, p. 121.

Specifically, Joos visualizes two typed of remoteness: remoteness in time and remoteness of unreality. It is the establishment of this second class of remoteness which makes Joos' analysis significantly different from that of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin. The three linguists would consider this class as part of the subjunctive. However, Joos points out that the forms used to express his two classes of remoteness are identical, with only one exception. "Was" is replaced by "were" in verbs expressing the remoteness of unreality; however, this exception is beginning to disappear, as "was" is used more and more in this environment. The form used for the remoteness of unreality is essentially different from that used for other subjunctive constructions. The following sentences illustrate the basic difference:

"I suggest that his name be deleted."
"I suggested that his name be deleted."

and

"If I were king, I would lower the taxes."
"If I had any money, I would give you some."

The first set shows clearly that the subjunctive has a constant form, regardless of whether the main verb is in marked tense or not. And, the second set of sentences contrasts with the first set by using a different grammatical marking of the verb. Finally, the semantic difference between the situations of each set leads us to consider each as exemplifying different concepts. The identity of the grammatical marking of the unreality with that used for the "remote" tense with past meaning leads us to posit it as a submember of the "remote" tense.

Joos further supports his analysis of the situation with a more detailed description of the remoteness of unreality. This unreality expressed by the "remote" tense becomes a posited substitute for reality, and therefore comes into conflict with reality itself. In the conflict, reality always prevails, and no further words must be added to express this victory. This normal resolution forces the posited substitute into the kind of remoteness called "unreality." It is not a shift on the time-scale. Neither has it anything to do with truth, validity or probability.[5]

The analysis made by Stockwell, Bowen and Martin of the same situation Joos represents with the remoteness of unreality is quite different. They interpret this phenomenon as part of the subjunctive. Such an allocation is necessary if their analysis is to stand up. However, the connection of this

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[5] Ibid., pp. 121-122.

phenomenon with the subjunctive, in English, has been shown previously to be rather tenuous, and this must therefore be considered as a weakness in the Stockwell, Bowen and Martin system. This weakness is intensified by the occurrence of other problems, directly resulting from their concept of tense.

The main problem raised in the analysis of Spanish concerns the number of tenses present in the language. In order to keep the number of tenses at two, the same as in English, Stockwell, Bowen and Martin are forced to deny tense status to what are traditionally known as the "future" and "conditional." However, this would seem to violate the basic understanding of tense as a grammatical marking of the verb. The three linguists attempt to reconcile this contradiction, thereby preserving their time-based tense system, by disqualifying these two categories on the basis of their historical development. In their analysis, these two categories developed from the infinitive form followed by the conjugated forms of the verb haber. They state that the present endings are not true suffixes because they are attached to the infinitive instead of the stem.[6]

Many linguists, among them Ernest Haden, would disagree quite definitely with Stockwell, Bowen and Martin's analysis of the tense situation in Spanish. The basis for their argument would be that it does not matter how it develops but rather what it is at the time of analysis. The fallacy in the argument made for disqualification of the "future" and the "conditional" on historical grounds lies in the fact that language is constantly changing. A brief survey is what is known about Indo-European before it broke up into the various language groups will show radical differences from present-day English. Yet, we do not analyze English in terms of the early structure of Indo-European but rather in terms of what it is today. The situation in Spanish with the "future" and "conditional" categories in the same, and Stockwell, Bowen and Martin have tried to force an obsolete system on present phenomena.

But, more basic to the discussion, is the separation of tense as a time indicator from the other verbal modifications. Stockwell, Bowen and Martin have compartmentalized tense into a very narrow category. What is more, it is not a particularly relevant category. A broader view of tense would provide a cohesive force for bringing together the other verbal modifications. One might say that in Spanish tense has the following functions: (1) to express "aspect," (2) to express "mood," and (3) to express certain temporal relationships. Such an interpretation of the tense category places emphasis on the existense of tense as a grammatical marker of the verb.

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[6]Stockwell, Bowen, Martin, op. cit., p. 147.

In the light of the preceding considerations, Joos' analysis seems to be more rigorous in both approach and application. Accepting his analysis causes a recognition that tense in Spanish is more complex than that of English. Also, the function of tense in Spanish is more varied than in the English system. However, English and Spanish are similar in that specific time markers are more often adverbials than verb forms.

The category of aspect in both languages is also a topic for sharp disagreement. Stockwell, Bowen and Martin immediately disagree with Joos in their initial discussion of this category. They categorically state that "English ... does not have any aspect distinctions."[7] In defense, Joos states: "Aspect in English ... characterizes the distribution along the time-scale of the probability that the predication is still valid when the attention is shifted to earlier and later times."[8] He describes two kinds of aspect: generic and temporary. In defining the two aspects, Joos emphasizes that in English the aspectual differentiation concerns the probability of the validity of the predication as opposed to the actual nature of the event described by the verb. This is the essential difference between his use of "aspect" and that of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin in regard to English. It is for this reason that the three latter linguists claim there is no "aspect" in English. They state: "Any event has, potentially, three aspects: it may be viewed at its beginning (initiative aspect), at its end (terminative aspect), or sometime in the course of its occurrence -- that is, somewhere between the beginning and end (imperfective aspect)."[9] As Joos would agree, "aspect" defined in this manner would not exist in English, although it does exist in Spanish. However, there is no reason that the referents of an aspect system be the same from one language to another. The question which now remains in whether Joos' approach to the problem of aspect in English is valid.

The first point Joos makes in his analysis is that temporary aspect is a privative function of generic aspect. That is to say, the temporary aspect is one possible interpretation of generic aspect. The choice of the temporary aspect with the marker Be:-ing singles out one possible aspectual significance of the generic aspect by obliterating all others.[10] In a further description of temporary aspect, Joos says: "Temporary aspect does not necessarily signify anything about the nature of the event, which can be essentially progressive or static, continuous or interrupted, etc.; instead, it signifies something about the validity of the predication and specifically

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[7] Ibid., p. 148.

[8] Joos, op. cit., p. 127.

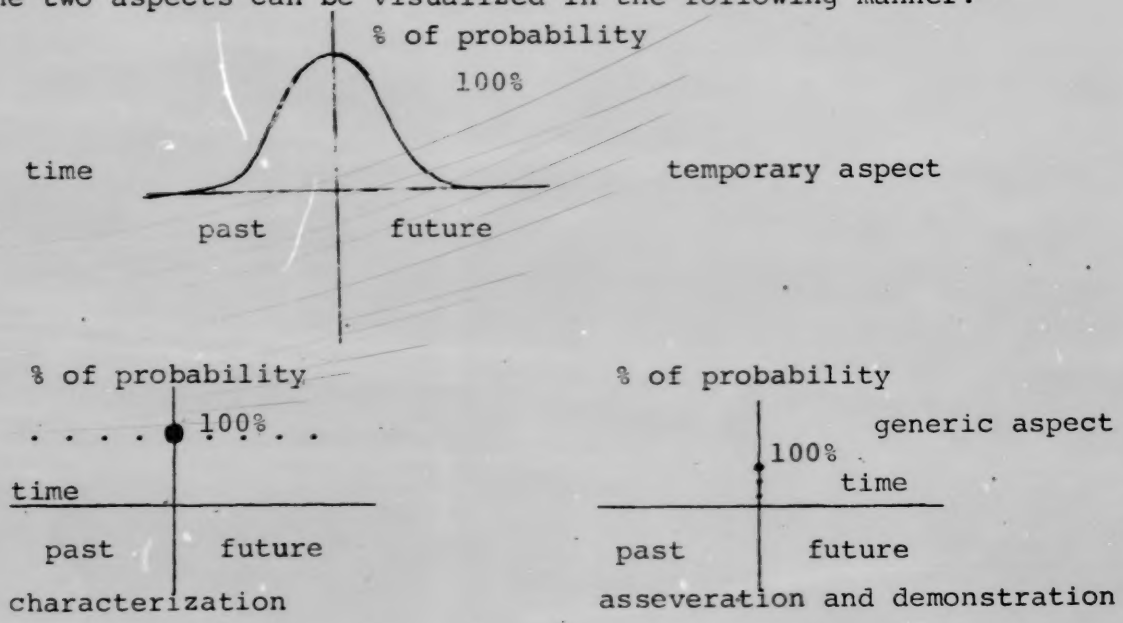
[9] Stockwell, Bowen, Martin, op. cit., p. 134.

[10] Joos, op. cit., p. 112.

it says that the probability of its validity diminishes smoothly from a maximum of perfect validity, both ways into the past and the future towards perfect irrelevance or falsity."[11]

In contrast, the normal generic aspect implies characterization of some kind. For the time principally referred to, the characterization is constant. It does not mean, however, that the events which the verb-base is apt to specify have always occurred, still are occurring and always will occur. An example is the phrase "like a straw you drink from." This is a characterization of the type "a straw used for the purposes of drinking," rather than a statement of occurrence. As secondary uses, the generic aspect is also used to report an event entirely confined to the time of speaking, such as "I remind you to tell the truth." It is also used for demonstration: "Now watch, I drop the tablet in water."

The two aspects can be visualized in the following manner:[12]




Joos does not find any conflict between the two graphs for generic aspect, since he states that aspect has no meaning of its own, but derives meaning entirely from the context, including the lexical meaning of the verb-base.[13]

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[11] Ibid., p. 105.

[12] Ibid., p. 211.

[13] Ibid., p. 112.

The above graphs clarify the meaning of the temporary aspect: limitation of duration. Also, the graphs show the mutual exclusiveness of the two divisions of generic aspect, showing them to be in complementary distribution with each other. The characterization message is spoiled unless the validity is allowed to spill over the edges of the frame; no time limit is set. On the other hand, asseveration and demonstration must have a sharp focus on a single time; a frame, however narrow, would spoil the message. Above all, these graphs illustrate that the limitation imposed on aspect is one of probability of the validity of the predication.

The situation of aspect in Spanish is quite different. The restriction is not on the probability of the validity of the predication but on temporal point of view from which one regards the verb-base. Stockwell, Bowen and Martin list two aspects: "perfective" and "imperfective." Other linguists prefer to call these aspects by the labels "descriptive" and "narrative," but the dichotomy actually made is more or less the same, whatever the labels used. The "perfective," expressed in Spanish by the traditionally labelled "preterite tense," is used for both initiative and terminative viewpoint. The "imperfective" aspect includes the viewpoint from the middle of the occurrence, and includes all forms except those which are "perfective." The three linguists further state: "Any event can be conceptualized in terms of its middle (imperfective) or in terms of the event as a whole, implying the ending of it (perfective),...."[14] However, as they point out, "... some events are more easily classified as primarily durative and others as primarily non-durative."[15]

Since the aspect system in Spanish is so different from that in English, it is one of the hardest parts of Spanish for native English-speakers to learn. Some examples given by Stockwell, Bowen and Martin are:

"Trabajé en la embajada." vs. "Trabajaba en la embajada."

"No encontré la casa." vs. "No encontraba la casa."

In these examples, the difference is fairly clearcut. Both actions expressed in the preterite are considered to have terminated: I have stopped working for the embassy and I have stopped looking for the house. However, the difference in aspectual meaning is less clear in the following set:

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[14] Stockwell, Bowen, Martin, op. cit., p. 135.

[15] Ibid.

"Fue un hombre respetable." vs. "Era un hombre respetable." This aspectual differentiation must be drilled heavily, with many different examples. The learner must develop a "feel" for this dichotomy so that he can choose the proper aspect in a reasonably fast manner.

The other problem caused by the difference in aspect between the two languages concerns what Joos calls "temporary aspect" in English and what Stockwell, Bowen and Martin call "currency." In justifying his analysis of aspect in English, Joos points out the essential differences between the Spanish formula and the English corresponding grammatical marking, a difference in function. Joos states that in Spanish the grammatical marking estar:ndo is used to imply that (1) the duration is primary and (2) the intensity of commitment of the actor to the event is greater than that indicated by the simple verb. In contrast, the temporary aspect marked in English with Be:-ing (1) characterizes the predication and (2) has a primary significance of a probabilistic limitation in time.[16] Joos' analysis of the situation is further supported by difference in frequency of usuage of the constructions in the two languages. The estar:-ndo construction can be used with all verbs in Spanish (although the occurrence of this construction with the verbs ir and venir is rare). In English, however, there are many verbs that cannot take the corresponding construction Be:-ing without a drastic change in meaning. Joos considers the change in meaning great enough to split the verb into two distinct verbs. Those that can take the construction he calls "process" verbs; those which, after separation from all other uses of the same lexical items which may take the construction, can in no way be marked with Be:-ing, he calls status verbs. Learning which uses of lexical items can be modified with this construction is one of the major problems faced by a native Spanish-speaker learning English.

Again, Joos' analysis of aspect in English seems to be the more valid. The disagreement with Stockwell, Bowen and Martin does not seem quite as serious as it was about tense. The difference lies in the fact that Stockwell, Bowen and Martin have accounted for the same phenomena, although in a slightly different manner and terminology. In their discussion of tense, however, the three linguists have not recognized either data or concepts of vital importance. As a result, the impression the reader receives of their concept of tense and how it actually applies to English and Spanish is confusing.

The whole previous discussion leads up to mention of the basic difference between the verb systems in the two languages. The Spanish verb carries a greater amount of semantic function than its English counterpart. Typically, the English verb must be supplemented with additional constructions outside the verb system to express the same amount of meaning carried by the

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[16] Joos, op. cit., p. 113.

Spanish verb alone. This can be exemplified by the problems encountered by the native English-speaker trying to decide between the preterite and imperfect on the basis of the English verb alone. Would "I worked in the embassy" be translated as "Trabajé en la embajada" or "Trabajaba en la embajada"? No decision other than an arbitrary one can be made on the basis of the data presented. However, it would be perfectly easy to translate either Spanish alternant into the correct English context since this information is carried in the Spanish verb.

This disucssion, sketchy as it may be, points out the need of more detailed study of verb modification categories and their semantical implications, especially in the field of language comparison. Terminology in particular needs to be sharpened up, defined clearly, and applied rigorously. Much work also remains to be done in research into both English and Spanish syntax.

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(Paper written for
Linguistics 360K,
The University of Texas
at Austin)

# THE VERB PHRASE: OTHER CONSTITUENTS

## NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topics are presented. Discuss any handouts given.

Time needed: 70 minutes (broken down as indicated)

Notes to participants

Recommended reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII.

Handout: Environments of *ser* and *estar*

THE VERB PHRASE: OTHER CONSTITUENTS

Outline of Presentation

Ser and Estar (15 minutes)

Usually ser and estar are in complementary distribution. Ser is consistently followed by one of the following elements in all sentences in which no deletion has occurred:

1. Temporal Adverb (TM) = (a las cinco, mañana)
2. Locative Adverb (Loc) = (en París, en Italia, donde dobla la calle a la derecha)
3. PRED (Noun Phrase or Adjective; Adj. may consist of preposition plus NP, as de María, de madera, para mí)

Handout: Chart 1; give examples for each type listed in chart (These may be found in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 166-170.)

Note: In 1) above, ser is followed by a temporal adverb and the subject consistently refers to an event:

e.g. La corrida es a las cinco.

In 2), when ser occurs with Loc, the subject must again be an event noun.

e.g. La conferencia es en la biblioteca.

(Give an example - p. 167, Stockwell, Bowen and Martin - of noun referring either to event or to thing not thought of as event.)

In 3) ser is followed by members of the class PRED (predicate), which includes either noun phrases or adjectives (See examples above.)

e.g. La mesa es de madera; El libro es para ti; and Juan es un muchacho; Juan es joven.

Point out that the difference between ser and estar is as follows:

| | ser | estar |
|---|---|---|
| Quality expressed by adjective is conceived as | norm (to be classified) | variant (requiring comment) |

ENVIRONMENTS OF SER AND ESTAR

$$VP \rightarrow AUX + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{ser} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{TM} \\ \text{LOC} \end{array} \right] \\ \text{PRED} \end{array} \right\} \\ \text{estar} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{ADJ} \\ \text{LOC} \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right\} \\ VP_1 \ (\text{ADV}) \end{array} \right] \\ \text{in env. N} \ \underline{\quad\quad} \ \text{event} \end{array} \right\}$$

This may be simplified (i.e., made more general but less precise) in this way:

$$VP \rightarrow AUX + \left[ \begin{array}{l} \underline{\text{ser}} \text{ and it dependencies} \\ \underline{\text{estar}} \text{ and its dependicies} \\ \underline{VP_1} \ (\text{ADV}) \end{array} \right]$$

Ser and Estar (cont'd)

Extract examples from Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 170 - Learning Problems. Point out that in sentences like:

La sinfonía será mañana. vs. La sinfonía está en la mesa.

La comida era a las ocho. vs. La comida estaba sobre la estufa.

La lectura fue a las dos. vs. La lectura está en la página doce.

The contrasts are not between the verbs themselves, but rather between the ENVIRONMENTS in which the verbs occur.

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Verb Classes of Spanish (25 minutes)

Leaving aside ser and estar, discuss verbs designated as VP, in the formula of the full verb phrase.

Spanish verbs may be broadly divided into two major groups: transitive and intransitive. Hand out Charts 2 and 3, and refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 172-179 (for Chart 2) and pp. 182-185 (for Chart 3) for discussion of classification and examples.

Answer any questions participants might raise regarding classification.

## CHART OF TRANSITIVE VERB CLASSES

| Class | Example | + NP | + Inf | + NC*/sbjv | + NC/Indic | + Comp | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $V_{t_1}$ | pagar | ✓ | | | | | |
| $V_{t_{1.2}}$ | robar | ✓ | | | | | Without |
| $V_{t_{1.3}}$ | resistir | ✓ | | | | | By loss |
| $V_{t_2}$ | deber | ✓ | ✓ | | | | |
| $V_{t_3}$ | permitir | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | |
| $V_{t_{3.1}}$ | querer | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | No adve |
| $V_{t_{3.2}}$ | negar | ✓ | ✓ | Affirm | Neg | | No adve |
| $V_{t_{3.3}}$ | creer | ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | |
| $V_{t_{3.4}}$ | saber | ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | NC si + |
| $V_{t_{3.5}}$ | contestar | ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | NP=accu =adverl |
| $V_{t_4}$ | negar (se) | Reflex | ✓ | a + | | | |
| $V_{t_{4.1}}$ | quejarse | Reflex | ✓ | de + | | | |
| $V_{tc_1}$ | elegir | ✓ | | | | $NP_1$ (ser) $NP_2$ | Ser obj |
| $V_{tc_2}$ | considerar | ✓ | | | | NP (ser) PRED | Ser opt |
| $V_{tc_3}$ | creer | ✓ | | | | NP (ser) ADJ | Ser obj |
| $V_{tc_4}$ | oír | ✓ | | | | NP + VP | VP-comp |
| $V_{tc_5}$ | mandar | ✓ | | | | Adv. int + VP | |
| $V_{tc_6}$ | hacer | ✓ | | | | NP + VP | VP inte if tran |

* NC - Noun Clause

CHART OF TRANSITIVE VERB CLASSES

| NP | + Inf | + NC*/sbjv | + NC/Indic | + Comp | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ✓ | | | | | |
| ✓ | | | | | Without personal a |
| ✓ | | | | | By loss of Prep a |
| ✓ | ✓ | | | | |
| ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | |
| ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | | | No adverb of interest |
| ✓ | ✓ | Affirm | Neg | | No adverb of interest |
| ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | |
| ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | NC si + indic |
| ✓ | ✓ | Neg | Affirm | | NP=accusative of extent =adverb |
| eflex | ✓ | a + | | | |
| eflex | ✓ | de + | | | |
| ✓ | | | | $NP_1$ (ser) $NP_2$ | Ser obligatorily deleted |
| ✓ | | | | NP (ser) PRED | Ser optional |
| ✓ | | | | NP (ser) ADJ | Ser obligatorily deleted |
| ✓ | | | | NP + VP | VP-comp is Inf or -ndo |
| ✓ | | | | Adv. int + VP | |
| ✓ | | | | NP + VP | VP interpreted as passive if transitive |

CHART OF TRANSITIVE-INTRANSITIVE VERB CLASSES

| Class | Example | + NP | + a | + con | + de | + que | + en | + Adv-int. | + I |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| $V_{t/i_1}$ | empezar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_2}$ | enseñar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_3}$ | soñar | ✓ | | ✓ | | | | | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_4}$ | terminar | ✓ | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_5}$ | tener | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_6}$ | insistir | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | | ✓ |
| $V_{t/i_7}$ | inspirar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | ✓ |

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CHART OF TRANSITIVE-INTRANSITIVE VERB CLASSES

| mple | + NP | + a | + con | + de | + que | + en | + Adv-int. | + Inf. | + NC |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ezar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | | ✓ | |
| eñar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | ✓ | |
| ar | ✓ | | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | |
| minar | ✓ | | | ✓ | | | | ✓ | |
| er | ✓ | | | | ✓ | | | ✓ | |
| istir | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | | ✓ | ✓ |
| spirar | ✓ | ✓ | | | | | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

Non-Verbal Constituents of the VP (10 minutes)

The VP always includes a verbal constituent (consisting of auxiliary plus verb stem and the elements person and number carried to the verb from the subject) and may also include one or more of the following, depending on the particular case: NP, Adj. or Adv. The verb classification given in the previous section depends largely on which of these non-verbal constituents may appear in the full VP.

Special points to consider: change in meaning of Adj. after ser and estar; contrast of English be+ ing vs. Spanish estar + -do

(He's standing. vs. Está parado.) etc.

Further examples may be taken from Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 185-187.

Direct Objects (10 minutes)

Generally, the function of the NP as direct object offers no (or little) difficulty to the student, since the English and Spanish constructions are almost identical:

I see the book. vs. Veo el libro., etc.

The most important contrasts are with the use of the "personal a." Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 188-89 and give examples as time permits.

Object Pronouns (10 minutes)

An important contrast is the position of the object pronoun with relation to the verb. One area of difficulty is the use of both direct and indirect object pronouns in the same environment.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 190. Give example of noun + pron. + verb in Spanish (e.g. El libro lo dejé con Ud., etc.)

12.

## ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Answer questions in Politzer-Staubach, pp. 184-186, based on Chapter VIII.

Select three of four participants to devise a one- to two-minute exercise based on present lesson (one specific point for each person) and have participants present the exercise at next session, much in the same way as they would to their own students.

SESSION V

| Topic | Minutes | Materia |
|---|---|---|
| Questions and Discussion of Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII; Answer questions on pp. 184-86 | 20 | Politzer-Staubac |
| VII. Syntax (cont'd) | | |
| 2. Other constituents (cont'd.) | 45 | |
| f. Reflexive pronouns | (15) | |
| g. Adverbs of interest | (10) | |
| h. Adverbs | (10) | |
| i. Relaters | (10) | Handout: Relate |
| D. Simple sentence transformations | 40 | |
| 1. Passive | (20) | |
| 2. Subjunctive | (20) | |
| BREAK | | |
| E. Pattern Drills | 45 | Handout: Patter |
| G. Complex sentence transformations | 70 | |
| 1. Complements | (30) | |
| 2. Noun clauses - Verb | (20) | |
| 3. Noun clauses as subjects of impersonal verb phrases | (20) | |
| ASSIGNMENT SHEET | | |
| Evaluation | | |

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SESSION V

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| ion of Politzer-<br>III; Answer questions | 20 | Politzer-Staubach | 101 |
| | | | 102 |
| stituents (cont'd.) | 45 | | |
| ive pronouns | (15) | | |
| s of interest | (10) | | |
| s | (10) | | |
| rs | (10) | Handout: Relaters | 105 |
| nce transformations | 40 | | 106 |
| | (20) | | |
| ve | (20) | | |
| lls | 45 | | 109 |
| | | Handout: Pattern Drills | |
| tence transformations | 70 | | |
| nts | (30) | | |
| ses - Verb | (20) | | |
| ses as subjects of<br>nal verb phrases | (20) | | |
| | | | 120 |

## QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Discuss any points the participants might raise concerning Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII, or other aspects of syntax heretofore covered.

Have the participants answer some of the questions on pp. 184-86.

Have participants do demonstration teaching (as assigned in previous session).

Time needed: 20 minutes

Notes to Participants

Required reading: Politzer-Staubach, Chapter VIII

## SYNTAX: OTHER CONSTITUENTS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topics are presented. Discuss and answer questions as necessary.

Time needed: 45 minutes (broken down as indicated in individual topics.)

SYNTAX: OTHER CONSTITUENTS

Outline of Presentation

Reflexive Pronouns (15)

In Spanish the reflexive functions in three ways:

- refers to the subject. (Pepito se lavó.)
- "figurative" uses in which no mention of the person or persons performing the action; e.g. Se ensució la pared., Se paró el tráfico, etc. See: Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 190 for further examples.
- Reciprocal meaning. (Juan y María se escriben.)

Point out that some verbs are always accompanied by the reflexive pronoun (ausentarse, atreverse, quejarse, etc.) Other verbs commonly used with the reflexive take on a special meaning in English. (See Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 191.)

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Adverbs of Interest (10)

- Point out redundant use of the indirect object pronoun.
- The Spanish adverb of interest has a variety of possible English equivalencies. (See Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 193 for examples.)
- In its reflexive form, the adverb of interest may occur with intransitive and linking verbs as well as with transitive verbs. (examples: se fue, se durmió, se murió, etc.)
- The pronoun se also functions as an adverb of interest when the referent is the same as the subject of the accompanying verb: e.g. se comió la manzana; se cortó la mano, etc. (see Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 194.)

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Adverbs (10)

Adverbs may be words, phrases or clauses and are modifiers of verbs or of other modifiers. Like adjectives, they are readily nominalized - usually in fixed expressions such as: a lo mejor, a lo lejos, de vez en cuando, de aquí en adelante, etc., which as phrases retain their adverbial function.

The adverbial system of English and Spanish have many features in common. The following features, however do contrast:

(Here refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 204-5, Nos. 1-9 and give a brief example of each type.)

---

Relaters (10)

The co-ordinating relaters (y, o) cause little trouble for the student since English and Spanish are almost identical in their meaning and distribution.

The subordinating relaters offer more of a problem, however, ranging from difficulty in translation to semantic confusions.

Handouts: Give out sheet listing examples of both types of confusion and discuss.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 210-215 for discussion and examples of relaters.

## RELATERS

Translation is difficult, because the semantic ranges of corresponding items are not congruent; the only solution is to memorize equivalencies, since logic will not help in these cases.

| | |
|---|---|
| Está en la silla. | on |
| Está en la casa. | in |
| Está en casa. | at |
| Lo puse en la caja. | into |
| Va a convertirse en hielo. | to |
| Lo compré en dos dólares. | for |
| Pensamos en quedarnos. | about |
| Entré en la sala. | ---- |
| El problema consiste en no saber. | of |

---

The same problems exist from English to Spanish:

| | |
|---|---|
| The house was built by ... | por |
| He is well thought of by all. | de |
| Do this by tomorrow. | para |
| She still hadn't done it by 4 p.m. | a |
| Let's go by train. | en |
| By crying you won't get anywhere. | con |
| Ten divided by two is five. | por |
| He went by the book in everything. | según |
| She was sitting by him. | junto a |
| We live right by the restaurant. | al lado de |

## SIMPLE SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topics are presented.

Time needed: 40 minutes (as indicated)

## SIMPLE SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

PASSIVE:

The passive consists of making a subject of the object, and then making other changes, among them the agreement of the past participle (the -do form) with the subject. This occurs because the past participle is, in effect, functioning like an adjective after ser.

The passive is a very high frequency form in English; however, in Spanish it is much less frequent because:

1) The sense of the passive is regularly conveyed by the deletion of the AGENT (as we have seen previously under Adverbs.) E.g. Se abrió la puerta; Se llevaron los niños al parque, etc.

2) The construction estar + adjective (including past participles) is used if we are viewing an event as over and done with and only the resultant condition is being noted. E.g El vaso fue roto (agent understood) vs. El vaso estaba roto.

Occasionally the distinction between ser and estar will be formally differentiated in English.

E.g. La ventana fue abierta. The window was opened.

La ventana estaba abierta. The window was open.

or The man was freed. (from jail) vs. The man was free. (not a slave)

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 235-36 for other examples as necessary, especially cases of agent deletion. Point out that the concept of the passive is rendered in several ways in Spanish.

1. Ser + p.p. + por
2. Agent deletion, as seen above.
3. Third person, plural, indicative. (Vendieron la casa; Detuvieron al hombre.)
4. If subject of the passive sentence in English is a person (or animate thing that conceivably does the action to itself), Spanish uses an impersonal reflexive construction, which is always third singular, ONE does the action, and the person to whom the action is done is the object (DO or IO), of the verb. E.g. Se la veía a menudo, Se la mandó, Se le ofreció un trabajo, Se les llevó. (Trans. She was seen often, She was sent, He [or she] was offered a job, They were taken.)

Subjunctive (20)

Most of the cases of subjunctive transformations will be dealt with under Complex Sentence Transformations. Here only the following types will be considered.

After tal vez, quizás, acaso, etc., either indicative or subjunctive may be used. The following examples in each column are identical EXCEPT for the change of mood: indicative -- subjunctive, which is rendered in English by modals, in external modifications, or through INTONATION:

| | |
|---|---|
| Tal vez va. | Tal vez vaya. |
| Quizás quiere venir aquí. | Quizás quiera venir aquí. |
| Acaso conoces mucho. | Acaso conozcas mucho. |

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 241-2, for discussion of Learning Problems and give examples.

NOTE: tal vez, quizá (s), and acaso - when following verb only allows INDICATIVE.

Call on participants individually and have them make up sentences (Spanish) orally using indicative and subjunctive. Then have them translate the sentences into English.

## PATTERN DRILLS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Go over handout (Pattern Drills) with participants.

Have participants make up drills for passive or imperfect-preterite (etc.) Call on one or two participants for each type assigned and have them conduct the drills before the rest of the class.

Time needed: 45 minutes (about 10 minutes to go over the handout; 20 minutes for the participants to make up the drills; 15 minutes for the presentation of the drills.)

PATTERN DRILLS

I. Aims and objectives. Well-designed drills will develop automatic response, increase in fluency and understanding, and enable any class to do more talking in the language than in English about the language.

II. Some do's and don'ts of pattern making.

1. Each drill should be built on a single point and elicit only a slight variation by the student.

2. a) Student should know what is being drilled, either by clear, concise instructions or by an obvious pattern. This does not mean that a grammatical discussion precedes the drill.

b) Instructions should be given one-at-a-time, not at once.

c) For taped drills, 2 voices are better, one for giving directions and stimuli (substitution items, etc.), the other for the responses.

3. Complete utterances. No multiple choice, no fill-ins, no paradigm recitations, no mixed English-Spanish, etc.

4. The drill language should be as meaningful and natural as possible. Sometimes we're forced to pervert the language slightly for pedagogic reasons (e.g. excessive use of possessive adjectives and subject pronouns in Spanish.) As soon as this becomes more than slight, then we are confusing the means and the end of language study and we are no longer drilling the real language, but instead, something contrived by teachers.

Examples:

Yo hablo con los muchachos. .
Yo soy alumno de español. .
Miro mi reloj. .
Me puse mi abrigo. .
Levanté mi mano. .
Pierde su tiempo. .

Imagine the impression a foreigner would create if he said: I am an English student. My name is Taylor. I raised my hand, etc.

5. The sentence frames should be as short as feasible, especially in the more elementary work. Item for item, a short frame is usually better than a long one.

6. Drill, not test. As such, they should be designed to move fast, with no time allowed to "figure out" the answer.

7. Completely oral. There should be no reference to written work of any kind.

8. Saturation. The basic frame (or frames) and one or two substitutions usually set the pattern. Four more will usually consolidate it, and another four will saturate -- providing -- that there has been ample repetitions along the way, and that proper drill procedures have been used.

III. Types of patterns. Basically, all patterns are substitution, transformation or response drills. However, the best way of classifying them seems to be whether they use the same frame as a base for each step or a different frame as the base for each step.

A. Using the same frame as a base for each step.

1. Simple substitution drill. A lexical item is replaced in one slot while holding everything else constant.

Examples: Este arroz es muy bueno
.... libro ....
.... plato ....
.... cuarto ...

2. Progressive substitution. Alternating the slot in which the substitution is made.

Examples: Este arroz es muy bueno
.... postre ...
... malo...
.... huevo ....
Ese ...

3. Simple Correlation. The substitution of one item requires that the student make a change in another.

Examples: Este arroz es muy bueno.
Esta carne ...
Estos helados ...

4. Progressive Correlation. Alternating the slot in which the substitution is made.

Examples: Lo dijo el muchacho.
... los muchachos.
.. vieron ..
... la señora.
... nosotros.

5. There are many types of substitution drills (replacement, expansion, alteration, etc.), but they are all basically substitution drills.

B. A different frame as a base for each step.

1. Transformation drill. A stated change from cue to response.

Examples: Replace object noun by pronoun.

| | |
|---|---|
| Vi a Juan ayer. | Lo vi ayer. |
| Compré un coche hoy. | Lo compré hoy |
| Tomé la medicina a las cinco. | etc. |

2. Response drill. Basically question-answer drills of various kinds.

a. Yes/no type. Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Recuerda Ud. la dirección? | No, no la recuerdo. |
| ¿Abre Ud. la puerta? | No, no la abro. |

b. Specific response. Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Dónde trabajaron? | Trabajamos en casa de Olga. |
| ¿Dónde comieron? | Comimos en casa de Olga. |
| ¿Dónde ---------- | --------- en casa de Olga. etc. |

c. Forced choice. Examples:

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Qué come Roberto, carne o pescado? | Come carne. |
| ¿Qué lee María, periódicos o revistas? | Lee periódicos. |

d. Cued response. Same as forced choice, but indicating beforehand which you want.

3. Translation drill. Used to show some structural difference from English. (Also used as the last in a series of drills, partly as a psychological factor, to corroborate in the student's own mind, the fact that he has learned something in the previous drills.)

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Examples: | I like to dance. | Me gusta bailar. |
| | He likes to swim. | Le gusta nadar. |

etc.

| | |
|---|---|
| He wants to bring the book. | Quiere traer el libro. |
| He hopes to bring the book. | Espera traer el libro. |
| He prefers to bring the book. | Prefiere traer el libro. |

etc.

Variation drill. A substitution or correlation drill in translation.

Examples: (Progressive substitution)

| | |
|---|---|
| Nos gusta la sopa. | Repitan. |
| We like the dress. | Nos gusta el vestido. |
| They like the dress. | Les gusta el vestido. |
| They like the suits. | Les gustan los trajes. |
| I like the suits. | Me gustan los trajes. |

IV. Procedure in making patterns.

1. Decide what point of grammar is involved.

2. Is there a contrast with English involved?

3. What kind of pattern will lend itself?

4. What are some of the syntactical, morphological or lexical items in the lesson which you want to use as constants or invariables?

V. A few reminders.

1. A pattern consists of 2 or 3 factors:

   . A substitution item. and/or:
   . A correlated change.
   . Repetition items - the invariables. Usually this is learned more automatically than the other two. And sometimes the pattern itself is contained in the invariable elements.

   Examples:

   Was Johnny in the house when you gave him the money?

   ... barn ...
   ... schoolhouse ...
   etc.

   ¿Estaba Pepe en la casa cuando le diste el dinero?

   ... escuela ...
   ... patio ...
   etc.

2. The speaker's attention is not on grammatical structures, but on the stream of thought and the reactions of the listener. The listener's attention is only on certain key items.

COMPLEX SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have the participants take notes as topics are presented.

Time needed: 70 minutes (divided as indicated)

## COMPLEX SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

Outline of Presentation

In the preceding section on Transformations (re: passive and subjunctive), only single or simple transformations or changes were described. Those transformations:

1) changed the order of elements:

| | |
|---|---|
| María se fue a las tres. | Su fue María a las tres. |

2) introduced additional elements:

| | |
|---|---|
| José quiere ir. | José sí quiere ir. |

3) deleted or replaced elements that were present:

| | |
|---|---|
| No, Juan no estaba aquí. | No, no estaba. |
| Quizás está aquí. | Quizás esté aquí. |

4) (accomplished) any two, or all three, of the above simultaneously:

| | |
|---|---|
| Compré la casa. | La casa la compré yo. |
| Angela está aquí. | Ojalá esté Angela aquí. |
| El escribió el libro en 1895. | El libro fue escrito en 1895. |

Complex sentence transformations do more than the above. They start from two sentences rather than one and these are subsequently combined in multiple ways.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 243-245, for additional discussion and examples.

---

Let us now consider some of the types of complex transformations.

Complements (30)

Give examples of Types A through F transformations, pointing out especially the comparison with English and the learning problems which may be encountered by the language student. Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for additional examples and discussion, pp. 245-254.

TYPE A: The transformation consists in replacing the direct object of the matrix string by a complement consisting of the subject of the constituent string, either the verb without auxiliaries, or no verb at all, and the predicate (adj. or NP.)

Examples:

1. Ellos eligieron a Juan.
   Juan es presidente. } Ellos eligieron presidente a Juan.

V: allows complement consisting of NP, deleted ser, a + NP

2. Ellos consideraban a Juan.
   Juan es un hombre. } Ellos consideraban (ser) un hombre a Juan.

   Ellos lo consideraban.
   El es un hombre. } Ellos lo consideraban (ser) un hombre.

a + NP

V: allows complement consisting of NP, optional ser, ADJ

3. Ella lo creía.
   Juan es guapo. } Ella creía guapo a Juan.

   Ella lo creía.
   El es guapo. } Ella lo creía guapo.

V: allows complement consisting of NP, deleted ser, ADJ

---

TYPE B

This transformation limited to small but frequent class of verbs (e.g. ver, oír, escuchar, etc.) and verbs like dejar and hacer.

Type B allows either placement of the matrix object before or after the verbal elements of the complement, IF the complement verbal element is intransitive and the subject of the matrix sentence is a noun. (e.g. Vi correr a los hombres or Vi a los hombres correr.)

If the verbal in the complement is transitive, and confusion in meaning could occur, the order is fixed. (e.g. Vi a los soldados fusilar a los desertores.) If there is no confusion in meaning between the two objects, either order is permitted (e.g. Escuché al hombre leer el libro. or Escuché leer el libro al hombre.)

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for typical errors caused by interference, and for a comparison of English and Spanish complements of this type. (pp. 248-249)

TYPE C

This class of verbs allows a -ndo complement (the same class that allows an infinitive complement, i.e. verbs of perception and observation).

Examples:

Los vi corriendo; Observé a los chicos saliendo.

The distinction between Type B and C is thin: I saw him go away.
I saw him going away.

Lo vi irse. vs. Lo vi saliendo (or yéndose).

---

TYPE D

The subject of the two strings is identical:

Lo pidieron.
Salían. } Pidieron salir.

Lo debo.
Salgo. } Debo salir.

Lo necesito.
Hablo contigo. } Necesito hablar contigo.

Most transitive verbs allow this transformation.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for additional discussion and Learning Problems, p. 251-2.

---

TYPE E

Basically the same as Type D, but limited to a subclass of verbs permitting adverbs of interest (pedir, mandar, sugerir, etc.)

The English patterns are basically similar:

| | |
|---|---|
| He ordered me to go with him. | Me mandó ir con él. |
| He told her to stay. | Le mandó (a ella) quedarse. |
| I persuaded him to sell it. | Le sugerí venderlo. |

(Note: there is not one-to-one correlation of lexical meaning. Some verbs in English permit infinitive construction as complement and Spanish requires clause.; i.e. decir, persuadir, etc.)

TYPE F

These permit the replacement of an activity nominal by an adverbial phrase consisting of a preposition (determined by the verb and not predictable) along with the nominalized form of the constituent sentence's verb phrase.

Examples:

Lo comencé.
Leía la lectura. } Comencé a leer la lectura.

Se lo enseñé.
El nadaba. } Le enseñé a nadar.

Lo soñé.
Compraba una casa. } Soñé con comprar una casa.

Lo terminé.
Trabajaba en el cine. } Terminé de trabajar en el cine.

Noun Clauses (20)

Noun clause verb objects are used to replace simple direct objects.

There are two basic types:

TYPE A

These verbs require subjunctive verb forms in object nominal classes in the following cases:

pedir; suplicar; necesitar. (See Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 254 for examples of sentences.)

Verbs like negar require subjunctive OR a subsequent modification (future or conditional) when affirmative.

Verbs like creer require subjunctive or the subsequent modification when negative.

In the case of creer, when interrogative, again it is a question of mood on the part of the speaker; the meaning is rendered in English with a change in intonation: Examples:

¿Cree Ud. que Juan está en casa?
¿Cree Ud. que Juan esté en casa?

TYPE B

This involves simple reporting, without imposition of will or prediction.. Minimal contrasts reflecting these differences are seen below (taken from Bull, A Visual Grammar of Spanish, 1961.)

Mamá insiste en que Pepe tome la medicina. Mother insists that Pepe take the medicine.

Mamá insiste en que Pepe toma la medicina. Mother insists that Pepe takes the medicine.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 256, for other examples from Bull. First, however, give some of the examples of Type B transformations listed on p. 255 of Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, before proceeding to p. 256 and additional examples and comparison and Learning Problems.

Noun Clauses as Subjects of Impersonal Verb Phrases (20)

The impersonal verb phrases that participate in this transformation consist of two types: 1) ser + PRED, where PRED includes ADJ and N which contain the semantic force of "necessity", "uncertainty," or "positive or negative bias" (preciso, necesario, posible, etc.) and 2) those consisting of certain impersonal verbs or verbal idioms (importar, valer la pena, etc.) Type A requires subjunctive and Type B, indicative, as indicated below:

TYPE A

Es preciso que lleguen a tiempo.
Es lástima que sea así.
No es seguro que vayan.
No importa que sea caro.

TYPE B

Es cierto que vienen.
Es verdad que son ricos.
Parece que van temprano.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for additional examples and discussion of Learning Problems, pp. 257-258.

ASSIGNMENT SHEET

Prepare pattern drills for complex sentence transformations, using the following verbs in noun clauses requiring subjunctive:

querer
creer
insistir
prohibir
ser + predicate

SESSION VI

| Topic | Minutes | Mater |
|---|---|---|
| Questions and discussion: | 15 | |
| Pattern drills . | 20 | Assignment |
| VIII. Syntax (cont'd) | | |
| E. Complex sentence transformations | 45 | Stockwell, Bow |
| 4. Adjective clauses | (15) | |
| 5. Adverbial clauses | (15) | |
| 6. Structural correspondence between English and Spanish | (15) | |
| IX. Lexical considerations | 60 | Transparency |
| BREAK | (20) | |
| X. Adapting a traditional textbook | (40) | Traditional t |
| XI. Discussion of state-adopted texts: Evaluation and criticism | 30 | One or more S texts |
| Wrap-up and questions | 10 | Handouts: Overlapping L |
| Evaluation of course | | Lexical Compa English-Spa |

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SESSION VI

| Topic | Minutes | Materials | Page |
|---|---|---|---|
| ion: | 15 | | 122 |
| | 20 | Assignment | 122 |
| ) | | | |
| tence transformations | 45 | Stockwell, Bowen and Martin | 123 |
| e clauses | (15) | | |
| l clauses | (15) | | |
| al correspondence between h and Spanish | (15) | | |
| erations | 60 | Transparency | 125 |
| | (20) | | |
| ditional textbook | (40) | Traditional texts | 130 |
| state-adopted texts: nd criticism | 30 | One or more State-adopted texts | 131 |
| | 10 | Handouts: | |
| | | Overlapping Lexical Items | 126 |
| | | Lexical Comparisons, English-Spanish | 127 |

## QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Discuss and answer any questions raised by participants concerning syntactical material presented to this point.

Time needed: 15 minutes

## PATTERN DRILLS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Call on participants at random and have a few of them present in front of the class the drills that they have prepared at home. Discuss the drills, how successful, efficient, etc.

Time needed: 20 minutes

## SYNTAX: COMPLEX SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Have participants take notes as topics are presented.

Time needed: 40 minutes

## COMPLEX SENTENCE TRANSFORMATIONS

### Outline of Presentation

### Adjective Clauses (15)

In order to make the proper choice between subjunctive and indicative in the constituent string of this type of transformation, a specific identification must be made of the NP in the matrix string to which the constituent is linked.

If the NP is identifiable, then the clause is in the indicative; if not, then the verb in the modifying clause is in the subjunctive.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 259, for examples and point out that Nos. 1-3 refer to what is commonly called "indefinite or negative" antecedents in some textbooks. In No. 4, the choice of subjunctive or indicative vis a vis a pesar de, depends on whether the NP refers to a particular unspecified thing OR to anything (i.e. non-specified thing) whatsoever. Therefore:

Voy a pesar de lo que dices = I'm going (or I go [usually])

while

Voy a pesar de lo que digas = I'm going in spite of what (ever) you may say.

At this point, refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 259-60, for comparison between English and Spanish in other examples.

---

### Adverbial Clauses (15)

TYPE A

Whenever the adverbial phrase of the constituent string implies or specifies SUBSEQUENCE, as with antes (de), con tal, para, sin, etc. the verb becomes subjunctive in the modifying clause. These adverbs ALWAYS signal subjunctive.

Have participants make up sentences (orally) using the above-mentioned adverbs.

Discuss comparison with English given in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, p. 260.

TYPE B

In this type, the choice of subjunctive vs. indicative depends on the VP in the constituent string:

Examples:

No lo veré.
Sale mañana. } No lo veré aunque sale mañana.

No lo veré.
Tal vez saldrá mañana. } No lo veré aunque salga mañana.

When the VP implies indefiniteness, not yet occurring, shown or proven, it is in the subjunctive; otherwise it is in the indicative.

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin for comparison with English on p. 261.

TYPE C

Purpose adverbs replace the NP and are comparable to the English formation.

Examples:

I came to help you. (I came in order to help you.) Vine / para / a / ayudarte.

These transformations offer no problem to the English speaker.

Structural Correspondence Between English and Spanish:

Refer to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 262-264, and use overhead projector or chalkboard for the following sentences:

They say for you not to go this afternoon.
vs.
Dicen que no vayas esta tarde.

AND

He doesn't like the idea of going to the store.
vs.
Lo de ir a la tienda no le gusta.

Break down the sentences unit by unit as shown in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin and discuss the correspondence (or lack thereof) between English and Spanish, in terms of both surface structure and deeper structure.

## LEXICAL CONSIDERATIONS

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Read Chapter 10 in Stockwell, Bowen and Martin. Choose examples of lexical differences in the following ranges:

Syntactic (just a few since this aspect has been covered in the sections on syntax). See Stockwell, Bowen and Martin, pp. 263-64.

Morphological (pp. 266-67)

Lexical Co-Occurrence (pp. 268-69)

Denotative (pp. 269-76). Give handout of Overlapping Lexical Items and go over them with the participants.

Connotative (pp. 277-78)

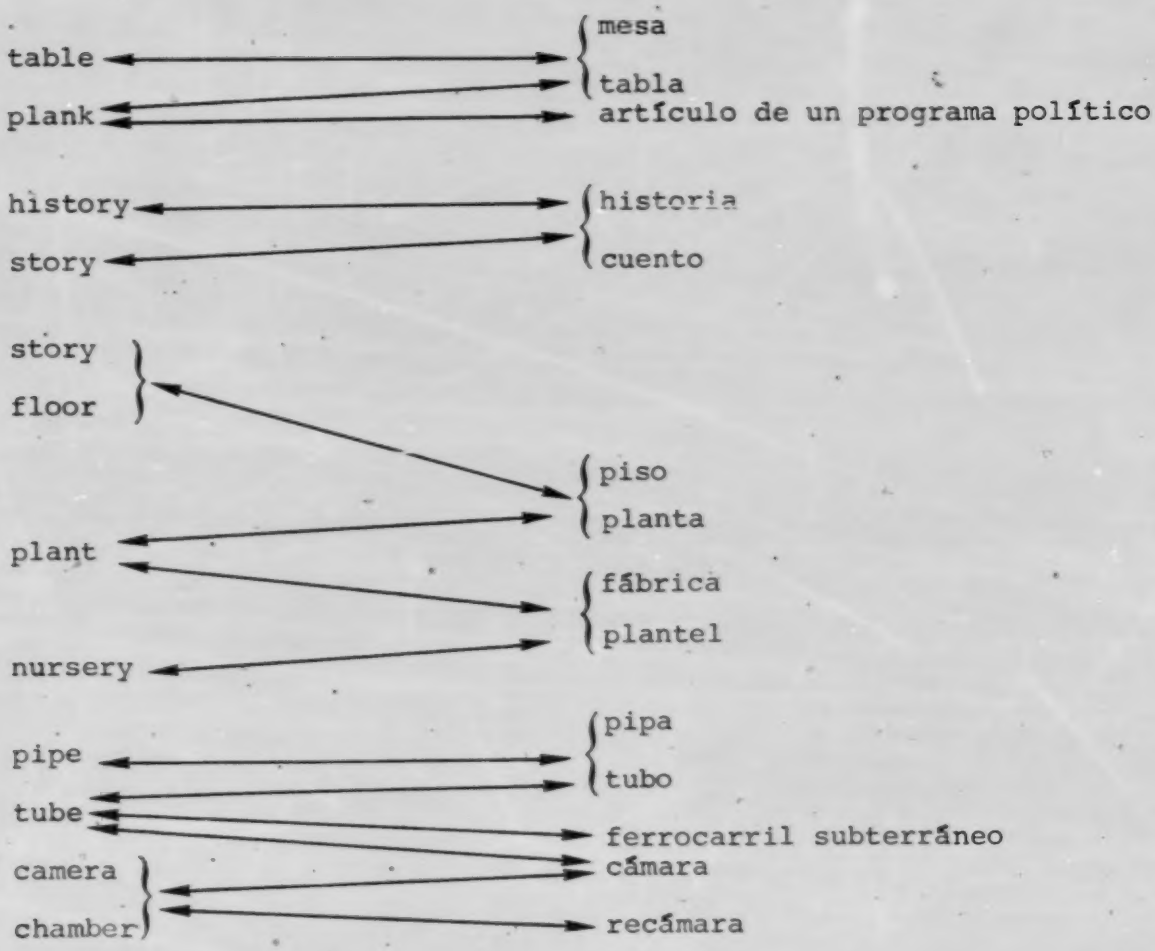
Circumstantial (pp. 279-80)

Handout: List of Lexical Comparisons

Call on participants at random.
Have participants make up sentences using the lexical items listed, and then translate the sentence into English. Specifically note cases of "false" congnates, expanded semantic range in either English or Spanish, and overlapping meanings.

Time needed: 60 minutes

OVERLAPPING LEXICAL ITEMS



## LEXICAL COMPARISONS

### ENGLISH-SPANISH

1. about - sobre, acerca de
   de
   a eso de
   cerca de
   más o menos

2. actual - real, verdadero, en realidad, a decir verdad,
   (actually) efectivo

3. present - actual, actualmente, en la actualidad
   (current)
   (currently)

4. agree - estar de acuerdo, estar conforme, convenir en,
   quedar en

5. (to) ask - pedir, preguntar, preguntar por, hacer una
   pregunta

6. attend - asistir a, atender a (una persona)

7. to assist - atender a, ayudar a

8. (to) be cold - hacer frío, tener frío, sentir frío,
   ser frío, estar frío

9. (to) become - hacerse, llegar a ser, ponerse, volverse,
   convertirse en, meterse a (often derogatory),
   ser de, hacerse de

10. boat - barco, buque, vapor, bote, barca, lancha

11. (to) burn - arder, quemar, quemarse, pegar fuego a,
    poner fuego a

12. confidence - confianza, confidencia

13. country - país, campo, patria, tierra, terreno

14. date - fecha, cita, compromiso, citarse

15. (to) enjoy - divertirse, gozar de, disfrutar (de), gustarle
    (mucho) a uno

16. (to) fail - fracasar, suspender, ser suspendido, dejar de,
    faltar, fallar, reprobar, salir mal

17. funny - gracioso, hacerle gracia a uno, tener gracia,
    divertido, cómico, curioso, extraño,
    sorprendente

18. (to) hang - colgar, pender, ahorcar

19. (to) hear - oír, oír decir que, oír hablar de, escuchar

20. (to) ignore - no hacer caso de/a, pasar por alto, desconocer

21. not to know - ignorar

22. introduce - presentar, introducir

23. (to) leave - salir (de), salir para, dejar, abandonar

24. (to) look - parecer, estar, mirar, buscar, parecerse a, ver, tener buena (mala) cara, verse bien (mal)

25. (to) meet - encontrar (a), conocer, verse con, dar con, tropezar con, encontrarse con, reunirse

26. (to) miss - perder, echar de menos, extrañar, faltar a, no coger, no encontrar

27. must - hay que, tener que, deber, deber de

28. next - siguiente, próximo, que viene, junto a, al lado de, de al lado, contiguo, que entrante

29. office - oficio, cargo, oficina, consulta, sala de consulta, clínica, gabinete, despacho

30. order - v. - pedir, mandar, hacer un pedido, ordenar, encargar

31. (to) pay - pagar, pagar...por, hacer una visita (to pay a visit), prestar atención, hacer caso de (or a)

32. people - gente, personas, gentes, pueblo, público

33. (to) put - poner, ponerse, meter, colocar

34. (to) realize - darse cuenta de, realizar

35. (to) refuse - negarse a, no querer (in preterite), rehusar, rechazar

36. (to) return - volver, devolver, regresar

37. right - el derecho, derecho, la derecha, tener razón, ser justo, estar bien, ser correcto

38. (to) save - salvar, ahorrar, guardar

39. season - estación, temporada, sazón, sazonar (to season food, etc.)

40. set - juego, aparato, servicio, colección, terno

41. sign - señal, muestra, indicio, seña, signo, letrero, huella, firma (signature)

42. (to) spend - gastar, pasar

43. (to) stop - detener, detenerse, parar (se), dejar de

44. (to) succeed - tener éxito, lograr, suceder (follow in succession)

45. (to) support - sostener, mantener, soportar (as a column - point out other meanings of soportar)

46. (to) take - llevar, tomar, dar un paso, dar un paseo, dar una vuelta, hacer un viaje, tener lugar, tardar (en); quitar, llevarse

47. (to) think - creer, pensar, pensar en, pensar de, pensar + infinitive

48. time - tiempo, hora, vez

49. (to) turn - volver, volverse, doblar, dar vuelta a..., revolver

50. (to) waste - perder, desperdiciar, echar a perder

51. work - obra, labor

52. worker - obrero, trabajador, jornalero, labrador

## ADAPTING A TRADITIONAL TEXTBOOK

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Employing one of the traditional texts currently in use in the system, choose two different sections to be adapted. Divide the participants into two groups. Assign one to make up a dialogue based on the material in the first selection and assign the second group to make up transformation drills based on the grammar points presented in the second selection.

Allow about 20 minutes.

Have the dialogue presented briefly in class (just read out, since time will not allow more), and then have individual participants read out one of their transformation drills.

Comment and discuss.

Time needed: 40 minutes

Materials: A traditional text

## DISCUSSION OF STATE ADOPTED TEXTS: EVALUATION AND CRITICISM

### NOTES TO INSTRUCTOR

Chose two sections (more if time permits) from one or two of the State-adopted texts. Have the participants analyze the sections as to logic of presentation, clarity, ease of presentation, etc.

Time needed: 30 minutes

Materials: Two of the State-adopted texts, preferably one on Level I and the other on Level II.

## GLOSSARY OF TERMS

affricates -- can almost be thought of as a combination of a stop and a fricative. The stoppage is made, but instead of being released sudddenly, it is released gradually like a fricative.

allophone -- phones which are classified together as members of the same phoneme.

alveolar -- a point of articulation made by the tip of the tongue touching the upper alveolar ridge.

anthropological linguistics -- a branch of cultural anthropology. The linguist generally does field work -- the transcription and analysis of a natural language using a native informant in his own habitat. Another concern of the anthropological linguist lies in the area of language and culture.

applied linguistics -- concerns itself with effectively using the findings of linguists in the various areas in the teaching-learning situation.

bilabial -- a point of articulation made by having the lips come into complete contact.

comparative linguistics -- compares two or more languages either synchronically or diachronically. These languages may be within the same family group or cut across different groups.

consonants -- sounds produced when the column of air is blocked or partially blocked as it emerges.

continuants -- if there is no blocking of the air stream, consonants designated as continuants are produced. There are two main types: fricatives and resonants.

count noun -- the determination of a count noun is based, generally, on the criterion of measurement by quantity or number (e.g.: book, egg, house, etc.)

descriptive linguistics -- sees language as a series of concatenations -- "... of sounds into forms and of forms into larger syntactic entities." (Salas, p. xii.)

diachronic studies -- also called historical; consider the process of linguistic change through time.

fricatives -- continuant sounds in which the organs are brought close enough together so that the air stream makes a friction-like sound.

glottal -- in production of sound, the exhaled air is modified or controlled by the vocal bands (e.g. /h/ as in jardín in many dialects of American Spanish).

grammatical morphemes -- those which signal grammatical (or structural) meaning.

horizontal plane -- in the articulation of vowels, refers to the position of the arch of the tongue with respect to the front or back of the mouth: front, central or back.

intonational phonemes -- also called suprasegmental phonemes; phonological features which influence the segmental phomemes. The four suprasegmentals are stress, pitch, terminal juncture and rhythm.

juncture -- or terminal juncture, a type of pause which involves a slight change in pitch, volume, and tempo.

kernel sentence -- a simple active declarative sentence whose grammatical structure places it into one of the basic sentence patterns.

labiodental -- a point of articulation made by the lower lip coming into contact with the upper teeth.

laterals -- resonant sounds in which the column of air leaves the mouth along the sides of the tongue instead of over the top.

lexical morphemes -- signal lexical meaning. Include free lexical morphemes, which are bases (or stems, roots) which may be uttered alone or may enter into various syntactical patterns with other morphemes without losing their "dictionary" meanings; and bound lexical morphemes, which are bases requiring the help of another bound morpheme, usually some kind of affix, in actual utterance.

linguistics -- the study of language for its own sake or as a phenomenon of human behavior, based on the assumption that language is speech.

mass noun -- the determination of a mass noun is based, generally, on the criterion of measurement by amount or volume (e.g. water, earth, wheat).

mode of articulation -- the way a sound is produced, e.g. fricative, continuant, etc.

morpheme -- the smallest units of speech which have an identifiable meaning of their own.

morphology -- the study of the smallest units of speech (combinations of phonemes) which have an identifiable meaning of their own.

nasals -- resonant sounds in which the oral cavity is closed off at some point and the nasal passage opened so that the air goes out through the nose.

noun phrase -- consists of determiner plus noun plus number (i.e. as a noun is selected, so is its number - singular or plural.)

palatal -- a point of articulation made by the dorsum of the tongue coming in contact with the hard palate.

philology -- approaches the study of language as a tool to enable the researcher to gain access to the literature, sociology, anthropology, and/or history of a given language. Often the philologist is interested in literatures and cultures where the language is no longer spoken; in this case he studies the written, etched, printed, etc., word, but not the spoken language.

phoneme -- the smallest unit of sound which is distinctively differentiated by the speakers of a given language.

phonemics -- the study of the distinctive sounds of language; concerns itself with differences in pronunciation which speakers use in the distinguishing different utterances in a language (contrasts), the limitations on occurrences of sounds, and the specification of the varieties of sound found in particular circumstances.

phonic groups -- breath groups, i.e. the stretch of speech between two pauses.

phonology -- refers to the sound system of a language in its totality. Some linguists have used the term to indicate the historical study of sounds, many to indicate the study of the functioning of sounds in a particular language.

phrase structure rules -- list the elements of kernel sentences and identify the hierarchy of relations among the elements.

pitch -- the musical tone or frequency.

point of articulation -- the place or point in the mouth where the organs come in contact to produce a sound.

psycholinguistics -- deals with several areas: the psychological drive that sets the grammatical process into motion; "psychological processes" involved in sentence production and

sentence recognition; learning patterns, perception, cognition, etc.

resonants -- continuant sounds in which the organs are brought close together, but not quite close enough to make a fricative sound.

semi-consonant (or semi-vowel) -- resonant sounds which are considered as being on the borderline between vowels and consonants.

semantics -- the study of meaning.

sinalefa -- vocalic linking across word boundaries.

sinéresis -- vocalic linking within a word.

sociolinguistics -- deals with the sociological applications of linguistic data and the linguistic uses of sociological data.

stress -- the loudness or prominence of a given sound.

suprasegmentals -- phonological features which influence in several inportant ways the segments of sound. They include: pitch, stress and juncture, as well as rhythm.

syncronic studies -- concern themselves with studying one language or dialect at a given point in time.

syntax -- words (composed of derivational, lexical, and grammatical morphemes) joined together to make up larger units of speech, such as phrases, sentences, etc.

tap (or flap) -- a quick tap of the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge.

transformational grammar -- grammar that is viewed as a set of phrase structure rules for the derivation of simple active declarative sentences, combined with a set of transformational rules which, when applied to the sentences derived by the phrase structure rules, add to, subtract from, or modify the order within them, or combine them in complex ways.

transformational rules -- derive sentences from underlying structures (sentences) by transforming or deleting elements or by combining two or more kernel (basic) sentences.

trill -- the tip of the tongue brought to the alveolar ridge where it is set into vibration.

unvoiced -- the vocal bands are loose and do not vibrate to produce an unvoiced sound.

uvular -- a sound articulated by placing the dorsum of the tongue against the uvula.

velar -- a sound articulated by placing the dorsum of the tongue against or near the velum.

verb phrase -- consists of an auxiliary plus verb.

vertical plane -- the position of the arch of the tongue with respect to the palate: high, mid or low.

voiced -- the vocal bands are tense and vibrate to produce a voiced sound.

vowels -- sounds produced with no blockage of the oral cavity. The basic criteria for the description of vowel sounds are: position of the arch with respect to the palate; position of the arch with respect to the front or back of the mouth; and shape of the lips.

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS

COMPARISON

Two problems emerge from a comparison of English and Spanish with respect to ma
distinctions: (1) the discrepancies of class assignment for semantically equiv
and (2) the limitations on the class "mass noun" in Spanish.

Typical of the first problem is a mass noun in English which is equivalent to a
Spanish.* Examples are:

| English | | Spani |
|---|---|---|
| Mass noun | Counter plus mass noun | Plural count noun |
| furniture | a piece of furniture | muebles |
| gossip | a piece of gossip | chismes |
| toast | a piece of toast | tostadas |
| silverware | a setting (service) of silverware | cubiertos |
| lightning | a flash of lightning | relámpagos |
| lightning | a bolt of lightning | rayos |
| thunder | a clap of thunder | truenos |
| advice | a bit (piece) of advice | consejos |
| ice cream | a dish (pint, etc.) of ice cream | helados |
| candy | a piece of candy | dulces |
| macaroni | a piece of macaroni | macarrones |

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* The relatively rare converse equivalence (Spanish mass noun vs. Englis
noted only in the following pairs: oleaje-waves, ramaje-branches, hojarasca-fa

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS

COMPARISON

rom a comparison of English and Spanish with respect to mass-noun/count-noun
e discrepancies of class assignment for semantically equivalent lexical items,
ns on the class "mass noun" in Spanish.

problem is a mass noun in English which is equivalent to a count noun in
re:

| English | Spanish | |
|---|---|---|
| Counter plus mass noun | Plural count noun | Singular count noun |
| iece of furniture | muebles | un mueble |
| iece of gossip | chismes | un chisme |
| iece of toast | tostadas | una tostada |
| tting (service) of silverware | cubiertos | un cubierto |
| lash of lightning | relámpagos | un relámpago |
| olt of lightning | rayos | un rayo |
| lap of thunder | truenos | un trueno |
| lt (piece) of advice | consejos | un consejo |
| lsh (pint, etc.) of ice cream | helados | un helado |
| iece of candy | dulces | un dulce |
| iece of macaroni | macarrones | un macarrón |

y rare converse equivalence (Spanish mass noun vs. English count noun) is
llowing pairs: oleaje-waves, ramaje-branches, hojarasca-fallen leaves.

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English | | Spanis |
|---|---|---|
| Mass noun | Counter plus mass noun | Plural count noun |
| foolishness | a piece of foolishness | disparates |
| foolishness | a piece of foolishness | necedades |
| nonsense | a bit of nonsense | tonterías |
| merchandise | an item of merchandise | mercancías |
| laughter | a burst (peal) of laughter | carcajadas |
| jewelry | a piece of jewelry (a jewel) | joyas |
| gray hair | a strand of gray hair | canas |
| equipment | a piece of equipment | equipos |
| news | a piece of news | noticias |



Sometimes a conflict can be avoided by equating a Spanish count noun with an Eng
rather than with an English mass noun that has a similar meaning. In other word
a choice, it is preferable not to cross the count-mass boundary. The following
two English equivalents for a Spanish count noun. In each instance the first is
(thought not necessarily stylistically) a better translation:

| Spanish | English | |
|---|---|---|
| Count noun | Count noun | Mass noun |
| joyas | jewels | jewelry |
| máquinas | machines | machinery |
| risas | laughs | laughter |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English | Spanish | |
|---|---|---|
| Counter plus mass noun | Plural count noun | Singular count noun |
| lece of foolishness | disparates | un disparate |
| lece of foolishness | necedades | una necedad |
| it of nonsense | tonterías | una tontería |
| item of merchandise | mercancías | una mercancía |
| urst (peal) of laughter | carcajadas | una carcajada |
| lece of jewelry (a jewel) | joyas | una joya |
| trand of gray hair | canas | una cana |
| lece of equipment | equipos | un equipo |
| lece of news | noticias | una noticia |

can be avoided by equating a Spanish count noun with an English count noun
nglish mass noun that has a similar meaning. In other words, when there is
rable not to cross the count-mass boundary. The following list illustrates
ts for a Spanish count noun. In each instance the first is pedagogically
ily stylistically) a better translation:

| Spanish | English | |
|---|---|---|
| Count noun | Count noun | Mass noun |
| joyas | jewels | jewelry |
| máquinas | machines | machinery |
| risas | laughs | laughter |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| Spanish | English | |
|---|---|---|
| Count noun | Count noun | Mass noun |
| hojas | leaves | foliage |
| escenas | scenes | scenery |
| mentiras | lies | lying |
| toses | coughs | coughing |
| informes | reports | information |
| noticias | news items | news |

A difficult problem for the English-speaking student of Spanish is the ease of
mass nouns to count constructions which cannot be matched in English. English-
will tend to avoid the constructions in the far right column below because they
in English:

| English mass | Spanish mass or count n |
|---|---|
| two pieces of chalk | dos barretas de tiza |
| two bars of soap | dos panes de jabón |
| two heads of lettuce | dos matas de lechuga |
| two cloves of garlic | dos cabecitas de ajo |
| two pieces (sticks) of chewing gum | dos pastillas de chicle |
| two strips of lace | dos cintas (tiras) de encaje |
| two heads of endive | dos cabezas de escarola |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| Spanish | English | |
|---|---|---|
| Count noun | Count noun | Mass noun |
| hojas | leaves | foliage |
| escenas | scenes | scenery |
| mentiras | lies | lying |
| toses | coughs | coughing |
| informes | reports | information |
| noticias | news items | news |

for the English-speaking student of Spanish is the ease of converting Spanish constructions which cannot be matched in English. English-speaking students the constructions in the far right column below because they have no equivalents

| lish mass | Spanish mass or count nouns | |
|---|---|---|
| halk | dos barretas de tiza | dos tizas |
| p | dos panes de jabón | dos jabónes |
| ttuce | dos matas de lechuga | dos lechugas |
| rlic | dos cabecitas de ajo | dos ajos |
| cks) of chewing gum | dos pastillas de chicle | dos chicles |
| ace | dos cintas (tiras) de encaje | dos encajes |
| dive | dos cabezas de escarola | dos escarolas |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English mass | Spanish mass or count n |
|---|---|
| two business deals | dos tratados de negocio |
| two pieces of wood | dos trozos de madera |
| two wads of cotton | dos motas de algodón |
| two pieces of gauze | dos pedazos de gaza |
| two bits of information | dos puntos de información |

Additional ramifications of the same problem of equivalence can be seen in the
In the first list, the English mass nouns in the fist column can be equated wi
nouns in the second column; but these can be fully converted to count construct
evidenced by the possible occurrence with a number adjective shown in the thir

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| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish coun |
|---|---|---|
| applause | el aplauso | dos aplausos |
| assistance | la asistencia | dos asistenc |
| audacity | la audacia | dos audacias |
| baggage | el equipaje | dos equipaje |
| bargaining | el regateo | dos regateos |
| boldness | la osadía | dos osadías |
| bread | el pan | dos panes |
| business (es) | el negocio | dos negocios |
| colic | el cólico | dos cólicos |
| confusion | la confusión | dos confusio |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| sh mass | Spanish mass or count nouns | |
|---|---|---|
| ls | dos tratados de negocio | dos negocios |
| od | dos trozos de madera | dos maderas |
| on | dos motas de algodón | dos algodones |
| uze | dos pedazos de gaza | dos gazas |
| rmation | dos puntos de información | dos informaciones |

tions of the same problem of equivalence can be seen in the following lists. the English mass nouns in the fist column can be equated with the Spanish mass column; but these can be fully converted to count constructions, which is ssible occurrence with a number adjective shown in the third column:

| glish mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish count noun |
|---|---|---|
| use | el aplauso | dos aplausos |
| tance | la asistencia | dos asistencias |
| ity | la audacia | dos audacias |
| ge | el equipaje | dos equipajes |
| ining | el regateo | dos regateos |
| ess | la osadía | dos osadías |
| | el pan | dos panes |
| ess (es) | el negocio | dos negocios |
| | el cólico | dos cólicos |
| sion | la confusión | dos confusiones |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish coun |
|---|---|---|
| devilishness | la diablura | dos diablura |
| diarrhea | la diarrea | dos diarreas |
| dust | la polvareda | dos polvared |
| fanaticism | el fanatismo | dos fanatism |
| foolishness | la necedad | dos necedade |
| hope | la esperanza | dos esperanz |
| imagination | la imaginación | dos imaginac |
| indigestion | la indigestión | dos indigest |
| infamy | la infamia | dos infamias |
| initiative | la iniciativa | dos iniciati |
| insolence | la insolencia | dos insolenc |
| insomnia | el insomnio | dos insomnio |
| laughter | la risa | dos risas |
| luck | la suerte | dos suertes |
| madness | la locura | dos locuras |
| melancholy | la melancolía | dos melancol |
| nonsense, silliness | la tontería | dos tontería |
| peace | la paz | dos paces |
| pneumonia | la pulmonía | dos pulmonía |
| prestige | el prestigio | dos prestigi |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| lish mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish count noun |
|---|---|---|
| shness | la diablura | dos diabluras |
| ea | la diarrea | dos diarreas |
| | la polvareda | dos polvaredas |
| cism | el fanatismo | dos fanatismos |
| hness | la necedad | dos necedades |
| | la esperanza | dos esperanzas |
| ation | la imaginación | dos imaginaciones |
| stion | la indigestión | dos indigestiones |
| | la infamia | dos infamias |
| tive | la iniciativa | dos iniciativas |
| nce | la insolencia | dos insolencias |
| ia | el insomnio | dos insomnios |
| er | la risa | dos risas |
| | la suerte | dos suertes |
| s | la locura | dos locuras |
| holy | la melancolía | dos melancolías |
| se, silliness | la tontería | dos tonterías |
| | la paz | dos paces |
| nia | la pulmonía | dos pulmonías |
| ge | el prestigio | dos prestigios |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish coun |
|---|---|---|
| progress | el progreso | dos progreso |
| remorse | el remordimiento | dos remordim |
| ridiculousness | la ridiculez | dos ridicule |
| romanticism | el romanticismo | dos romantic |
| sarcasm | el sarcasmo | dos sarcasmo |
| shamelessness, impudence | la desvergüenza | dos desvergü |
| strength | la fuerza | dos fuerzas |
| stupidity | la estupidez | dos estupide |
| support | el apoyo | dos apoyos |
| treason | la traición | dos traicion |
| velocity, speed | la velocidad | dos velocida |
| wealth | el caudal | dos caudales |
| witchcraft | la hechicería | dos hechicer |

The items in the following lists are only partly similar to the previous exampl
mass nouns can be converted into count nouns, as evidenced by the plural forms.
count noun has the limitation of not being permitted to occur with a number adj
items classed as "countable" cannot be enumerated. Only an aggregate, not a sp
instances, can be referred to, which indicates a restriction on the individuali
the process of "countifying." Examples are:

| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited c |
|---|---|---|
| abundance | la abundancia | las abundanci |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| lish mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish count noun |
|---|---|---|
| ss | el progreso | dos progresos |
| e | el remordimiento | dos remordimientos |
| lousness | la ridiculez | dos ridiculeces |
| icism | el romanticismo | dos romanticismos |
| m | el sarcasmo | dos sarcasmos |
| essness, impudence | la desvergüenza | dos desvergüenzas |
| th | la fuerza | dos fuerzas |
| ity | la estupidez | dos estupideces |
| t | el apoyo | dos apoyos |
| n | la traición | dos traiciones |
| ty, speed | la velocidad | dos velocidades |
| | el caudal | dos caudales |
| raft | la hechicería | dos hechicerías |

lowing lists are only partly similar to the previous examples. The Spanish nverted into count nouns, as evidenced by the plural forms. But the resulting imitation of not being permitted to occur with a number adjective; that is, the untable" cannot be enumerated. Only an aggregate, not a specific number of ferred to, which indicates a restriction on the individualizing function of tifying." Examples are:

| mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited count noun |
|---|---|---|
| | la abundancia | las abundancias |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited c |
|---|---|---|
| acidity | la acidez | las acideces |
| air | el aire | los aires |
| anger | la cólera | las cóleras |
| anger, wrath | la ira | las iras |
| apoplexy | la apoplejía | las apoplejía |
| appendicitis | la apendicitis | las apendicit |
| atmosphere | la atmósfera | las atmósfera |
| childishness | la niñería | las niñerías |
| clothing | la ropa | las ropas |
| cold | el frío | los fríos |
| cowardliness | la cobardía | las cobardías |
| disdain, scorn | el desdén | los desdenes |
| foam | la espuma | las espumas |
| frivolity | la frivolidad | las frivolida |
| heat | el calor | los calores |
| honey | la miel | las mieles |
| hunger | el hambre | las hambres |
| hurry, haste | la prisa | las prisas |
| impatience | la impaciencia | las impacienc |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

| mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited count noun |
|---|---|---|
| | la acidez | las acideces |
| | el aire | los aires |
| | la cólera | las cóleras |
| th | la ira | las iras |
| | la apoplejía | las apoplejías |
| is | la apendicitis | las apendicitis |
| | la atmósfera | las atmósferas |
| ss | la niñería | las niñerías |
| | la ropa | las ropas |
| | el frío | los fríos |
| ss | la cobardía | las cobardías |
| corn | el desdén | los desdenes |
| | la espuma | las espumas |
| | la frivolidad | las frivolidades |
| | el calor | los calores |
| | la miel | las mieles |
| | el hambre | las hambres |
| te | la prisa | las prisas |
| | la impaciencia | las impaciencias |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

| English mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited c |
|---|---|---|
| ivy | la hiedra | las hiedras |
| leisure | el ocio | los ocios |
| materialism | el materialismo | los materiali |
| meat | la carne | las carnes |
| modesty | el pudor | los pudores |
| music | la música | las músicas |
| nausea | la náusea | las náuseas |
| nervousness | la nerviosidad | las nerviosi |
| nostalgia, homesickness | la nostalgia | las nostalgi |
| paganism | el paganismo | los paganism |
| people | la gente | las gentes |
| pharyngitis | la angina | las anginas |
| powder | el polvo | los polvos |
| salt | la sal | las sales |
| sand | la arena | las arenas |
| shame, shamefulness | la vergüenza | las vergüenz |
| snow | la nieve | las nieves |
| sun | el sol | los soles |
| wate | el agua | las aguas |
| wool | la lana | las lanas |

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T NOUNS (CONT'D)

| h mass noun | Spanish mass noun | Spanish limited count noun |
|---|---|---|
| | la hiedra | las hiedras |
| | el ocio | los ocios |
| sm | el materialismo | los materialismos |
| | la carne | las carnes |
| | el pudor | los pudores |
| | la música | las músicas |
| | la náusea | las náuseas |
| ss | la nerviosidad | las nerviosidades |
| , homesickness | la nostalgia | las nostalgias |
| | el paganismo | los paganismos |
| | la gente | las gentes |
| is | la angina | las anginas |
| | el polvo | los polvos |
| | la sal | las sales |
| | la arena | las arenas |
| amefulness | la vergüenza | las vergüenzas |
| | la nieve | las nieves |
| | el sol | los soles |
| | el agua | las aguas |
| | la lana | las lanas |

MASS NOUNS AND COUNT NOUNS (CONT'D)

As with English, Spanish mass nouns sometimes show a change of meaning when the
Carne refers to meat, but carnes more likely refers to the abundant flesh of an

There are certain mass nouns in English (or perhaps count nouns with no singula
behave like mass nouns) similar to news, for which Spanish has count/mass equiv

| English plural count noun/mass noun | Spanish count/mass no |
|---|---|
| clothes | ropa |
| woods | bosque |
| oats | avena |
| grits | sémola |
| hives | urticaria |

145 Certain names of sciences or systems in English with the suffix -ics, usually c
have Spanish equivalents that are usually singular, though some can occasionall

| | |
|---|---|
| mathematics | matemática |
| physics | física |
| genetics | genética |
| acoustics | acústica |
| gymnastics | gimnástica |
| tactics | táctica |
| economics | economía |
| athletics | atletismo |

nish mass nouns sometimes show a change of meaning when they are countized.
, but carnes more likely refers to the abundant flesh of an overweight person.

ss nouns in English (or perhaps count nouns with no singular form, which
ns) similar to news, for which Spanish has count/mass equivalents:

| lish plural count noun/mass noun | Spanish count/mass noun |
|---|---|
| clothes | ropa |
| woods | bosque |
| oats | avena |
| grits | sémola |
| hives | urticaria |

ences or systems in English with the suffix -ics, usually consider singular,
ents that are usually singular, though some can occasionally be pluralized:

| | |
|---|---|
| mathematics | matemática |
| physics | física |
| genetics | genética |
| acoustics | acústica |
| gymnastics | gimnástica |
| tactics | táctica |
| economics | economía |
| athletics | atletismo |

One final difficulty is almost unrelated to the mass noun/count noun distinctio nouns are singular in English but plural in Spanish in their usual forms. This equivalence often troubles students. Examples are:

| English singular count noun | Spanish plural count noun |
|---|---|
| Morocco | Marruecos |
| vacation | vacaciones |
| nose | narices |

Actually narices has nostrils as its primary referent, but it is the equivalent utterances: Le pegó en las narices.

This discussion of mass and count constructions makes it possible to clarify so cited in an earlier section on the use of determiners. When a singular noun ap it is used in a count construction; without un(a), it is a mass construction. examples:



Count nouns

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes un empleo? | Do you have a job? |
| ¿Necesitas una criada? | Do you need a maid? |

Mass nouns

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes empleo? | Do you have work? |
| ¿Necesitas criada? | Do you need domestic help? |

There are pairs of English words to handle the count and mass meaning of Spanis (job/work, maid/help). But in the sentence ¿Tienes lápiz? there is only the En pencil available. The unity of the Spanish pattern cannot be illustrated witho some untypical English construction like:

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes un lápiz? | Do you have a pencil? |
| ¿Tienes lápiz? | Are you pencil-supplied? |

NOUNS (CONT'D)

is almost unrelated to the mass noun/count noun distinction. Some count
n English but plural in Spanish in their usual forms. This lack of formal
roubles students. Examples are:

| English singular count noun | Spanish plural count noun |
|---|---|
| Morocco | Marruecos |
| vacation | vacaciones |
| nose | narices |

nostrils as its primary referent, but it is the equivalent of nose in many
en las narices.

mass and count constructions makes it possible to clarify some of the examples
section on the use of determiners. When a singular noun appears with un(a),
nt construction; without un(a), it is a mass construction. Note the following

Count nouns

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes un empleo? | Do you have a job? |
| ¿Necesitas una criada? | Do you need a maid? |

Mass nouns

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes empleo? | Do you have work? |
| ¿Necesitas criada? | Do you need domestic help? |

English words to handle the count and mass meaning of Spanish empleo and criada
). But in the sentence ¿Tienes lápiz? there is only the English count noun
The unity of the Spanish pattern cannot be illustrated without resorting to
ish construction like:

| | |
|---|---|
| ¿Tienes un lápiz? | Do you have a pencil? |
| ¿Tienes lápiz? | Are you pencil-supplied? |